The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 9, 1889.

The Week.

THE charge which has been made or hinted against Bishop Potter, apropos of his centennial address, that he hurt President Harrison's feelings by being too pointed, has been disposed of by President Harrison himself, because as soon as he got back to Washington he gave his brother an office, and, it is said, invited Dudley to the White House. These things he would hardly have done if he had been touched by the Bishop's remarks, or cared particularly about the example of George Washington. With Col. Elliott F. Shepard at his back, he can well afford to despise the criticisms of other theologians. Nevertheless, the theologians seem to be rousing themselves and getting on his track. Bishop Huntington of Central New York has given his view of the manner in which Washington would behave, were he alive and in office to-day; and we are bound to say it is a view which can hardly fail to be offensive to the friends of the Administration.

The President gave on Tuesday the first tangible indication of a desire to redeem the pledges of his letter of acceptance, in the matter of civil-service reform, by appointing Messrs. Hugh S. Thompson and Theodore Roosevelt to the vacant places in the Civil-Service Commission. Mr. Thompson is a South Carolinian, who was at one time the Governor of his State, and was Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under President Cleveland, but had, we believe, neither act nor part in Mr. Maynard's little game and is entirely devoted to the reform. Mr. Roosevelt is well known in this State. He is erratic and impulsive, but he is enthusiastic, energetic, and honest, and may be relied on to see that the law is faithfully executed. In fact, the Commission as now constituted is the best we have had, and makes one feel as if the Potter sermon were really beginning to tell. It is noteworthy, too, that Mr. Thompson, the Democrat on the Commission, is the very Democrat selected by the Democratic President for the same place, and not a dummy nor a weakling.

The Senate investigation into Canadian railroads and their operation in the United States has been made interesting by the presence, as witnesses, of Mr. Albert Fink and Mr. John King. The drift of their testimony is to the point that the prohibition of pooling in the Inter-State Commerce Act is injurious, that it has not cured any of the evils that it was intended to remedy, and that it has introduced some that did not before exist. Upon the general effect of the act, taken as a whole, their testimony was less decisive. Mr. King said that one good result of it had been the revelation to the railroads that there was a power superior to themselves. This he considered a benefit to society, although his road would have got $500,000 more money last year if the Commerce Act had never been passed. The competition of Canadian railroads was not necessary, in his opinion, to keep down rates in the interest of the shipper; there would be enough for that purpose without them. But the Canadian railroads were doing useful work, and it was only necessary that they should be brought to the same judgment-seat and held to the same rules as the American roads with which they compete. This strikes us as the keynote of the subject in hand. We have certainly the power to compel observance of our laws by any person or corporation operating in our territory. We have that power under existing laws, if the Commerce Commission's decision in the recent case at Buffalo is sound. If the Grand Trunk Company has suddenly picked up 39 per cent. of the trunk-line business at Chicago, there must be a reason for it not known to the public or to the competitors of that road. Of course, the Commerce Commission is not bound to ferret out that reason: the Commission is already overworked. Perhaps Senator Cullom's committee may throw some light upon this mystery before the investigation is concluded.

An excellent bill requiring the sworn publicity of election expenditures by campaign committees and candidates, after election, is before the Massachusetts Legislature. It is, we believe, the first measure of the kind which has appeared in any of our Legislatures. There have been measures introduced similar to the one which Mr. Crosby presented in the New York Legislature, requiring candidates to publish, after election, sworn statements of all expenditures for campaign purposes. The Massachusetts bill requires publication by both committees and candidates, and is therefore much more comprehensive and desirable. It provides that every political campaign committee, State, city, town, or district, which expends over $100, shall have a treasurer, through whose hands shall pass all the money received or expended, who shall keep a detailed account of all receipts, and of the manner of all expenditures, and who shall, within twenty days after election, "file with the Secretary of the Commonwealth a return, setting forth all of the Committee's receipts, and a detailed statement of all its expenditures and disbursements." Any member of the Committee who receives or disburses any money for political or campaign purposes, is required to give the Treasurer a detailed account of the transaction, and the latter must include it in his return. Whoever shall be elected to Congress or to any State office is compelled, within ten days after election, to file with the Secretary of State a detailed statement of all "moneys contributed, disbursed, or expended by him in attempting to secure, or in any manner in connection with, his nomination or election to such office, provided that all such moneys shall exceed in the aggregate one hundred dollars." An important provision of the bill is one declaring illegal the expenditure of money to influence the action of a caucus or convention, or the result of an election, or the vote of any person in caucus, convention, or election, except by certain legitimate means like circulating printed matter.

The Massachusetts Legislature has passed an act forbidding the docking of horses' tails and punishing it by fine and imprisonment—a very praiseworthy piece of legislation, which we should be glad to see copied in this State. The President of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals sends us a "plea for the horse" on this subject which he addressed to the Legislature, and which is for the most part very sensible and forcible. But it is marred, as some of the documents of our temperance friends are, by trying to prove too much. For instance, when Mr. Angell says that "the Almighty gave the horse his tail that he might protect himself from tormenting insects," he asserts something which he cannot possibly know. No one knows why the Almighty gave the horse his tail any more than why he gave man his eyebrows or his beard. If he gave the horse his tail to protect him from the flies, for what purpose did he give him his mane? The mane does not keep off the flies, and, as a matter of fact, neither does the tail, as any one may see for himself by turning a long-tailed horse out in a field in August. A horse's worst suffering from flies, as everybody knows, goes on in places which the tail cannot reach. Moreover, if the tail is a divinely ordained instrument of protection, it must be sinful to cut the hair of it short, although when kept long it is apt to be both dirty and troublesome, and disfigures the horse, in the opinion of a large number of owners. If, too, every appendage an animal has is sacred and has a final cause, is it right for a man to cut his hair or his beard? The truth is that, although docking, like all mutilation, ought to be prohibited because it is cruel, it is absurd to attack it on the ground that horses have a divine right in long tails. On the other hand, a long tail rapidly becomes a great repository of mud and other filth, which somebody has to keep clean; so that if the Almighty meant the horse to have his tail long, he would, in our opinion, to which we challenge contradiction, have given him the means of washing and combing it out. There is, in truth, no better defence for long tails in horses than long hair on man.

Nobody knows how many horses went down on our wretched pavements during the recent parades, because those cases only were reported which resulted in serious injury. But the number was very great. All

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along the lines horses were falling, for the reason that we have not in New York a pavement fit for them to travel over—a fact which seems peculiarly absurd when taken together with a glorification of the material progress of a century. No doubt the streets of New York were fitter and safer for horses when Washington was inaugurated than they are now, after a hundred years. No skill of horsemanship avails to keep a horse upright on them if anything goes wrong with him. Inspector Conlin, who was thrown and bruised in Fifth Avenue on Tuesday of last week, is an accomplished horseman, and Mr. Nyegaard, to whom a like accident happened in the same street on Wednesday, breaking his leg in two places, is head riding-master at the largest school in New York, and can save a horse from falling where anybody can. Yet his horse, though prepared carefully for the known dangers of our pavements, went down under him when barely in motion. A horse in harness does somewhat better if, like the cab horse in 'Pickwick,' you "bear him up werry tight and take him in werry short, so as he can't werry well fall down," yet fallen horses in harness are a common enough sight, while saddle horses, which are a good deal more "abroad," never are safe anywhere in the streets. It happens very oddly that almost all the casualties during our celebration of a century of progress should come from the want of decent roads, which are of the rudiments of civilization.

The Thomas Iron Company on Monday made another cut of one dollar per ton in the price of pig-iron, the new rates being $17 for No. 1 and $16 for No. 2. The price in England has been advancing lately, having reached 40 shillings in the Middlesboro District and 44s. 2d. in Glasgow. The state of the iron industry, both here and abroad, is exactly the opposite of what was predicted by the supporters of Harrison in the campaign of last year. If Harrison was elected, we were to have good times in manufacturing circles, and good wages and active trade. If Cleveland was elected, we should have bad times and reduced wages and dull trade. England, according to the same prophets, was looking on with intense anxiety and pouring out her money for the Cleveland ticket, hoping to "deluge" us with iron if he were elected. Well, the Harrison ticket was successful, and what do we see? England is so driven by the demand for iron that all her works are *fully* employed. She could not supply any considerable American demand, even if there were no tariff on iron, without disappointing her present customers. On the other hand, our works are either reducing wages or closing up, and prices are falling. What *would* have been said by our tariff friends if all this had happened under a second Cleveland Administration?

The copper market abroad is slowly returning to the normal conditions of supply and demand. For the first two weeks of April the arrivals at the principal English ports were only ninety-one tons in excess of the sales for consumption. The statistical position on the first of May showed, for the first time in eighteen months, a diminution of the stock on hand. The price in the English market is £38 per ton for "good merchantable," which is 17 shillings lower than the price ruling before the French Syndicate, under the leadership of M. Secretan, began operations. The public, however, look for still lower prices, the stock on hand being so disproportioned to the ordinary conditions of the trade. This is estimated at not less than 125,000 tons, but is probably greater—the London *Economist* of April 20 says 175,000 tons. The fact that this large stock is now in strong hands counts for nothing unless the mining companies can be persuaded to restrict their output for a long time. The *Economist* of the 20th says that "some of the people principally interested in the syndicate, including the liquidators of the Comptoir d'Escompte, have been in London this week endeavoring to patch up an arrangement with the producing companies, but we understand that the difficulties in the way of a settlement appear to be increasing rather than diminishing. The European companies seem to be willing to accept any terms the representatives of the syndicate choose to offer; but the American and Cape companies, which really hold the whip hand, have adopted a firmer attitude." It is one of the humors of the copper situation that M. Secretan, after having been fined his entire fortune for his participation in the syndicate, is now under prosecution in the courts for an additional fine of 50 to 10,000 francs for violation of an article of the Penal Code on forestalling and regrating.

There seems to be no doubt that the American Congress of next October will be at least well attended. The invitation to be represented at it has already been accepted by Mexico, Columbia, Chili, Ecuador, the Argentine Republic, and the Central American republics, and they will, unquestionably, be joined by the other countries invited. The only possible exception is Brazil, from which empire no intimation has yet come. The attitude with which the Spanish-American representatives will come to the conference may be inferred from a most suggestive article in *Las Novedades* of April 26. That paper is the official organ in this country of Spain and Spanish America. It refers to the almost absolute indifference of the South American press to the coming Congress—an indifference which our own observation, as far as it goes, fully corroborates. Nothing but the vaguest references to the matter are to be encountered, and these, while expressing an amiable desire for political friendship with the United States, do not at all contemplate any efforts to promote our commercial interests. *Las Novedades* itself has all along maintained that little is to be expected from the conference except empty talk, and significantly says to those who think they see such a "good thing" in it for American trade: "The Congress will not be a bed of roses, and even may turn out to be a free fight as soon as it is proposed to the representatives of Spanish America to virtually reëstablish, in favor and for the benefit of the United States, the colonial system which they destroyed in 1810."

It goes on to quote from a private letter written by a man who, it says, is "one of the most eminent of the public men of South America," as follows: "I do not believe that the Spanish-American republics will fall into the snare prepared for them in the projected Continental Congress. Uniformity of weights, measures, and coinage; better postal facilities; subsidies to new lines of steamers engaged in the South American trade—all this would be possible and useful; but unification of tariffs, or anything like it, never. They propose, for example, that we should admit their cotton and woollen goods free of duty, in exchange for a similar concession to our products, such as coffee, tobacco, cocoa, copper, etc. But this would imply the destruction of our customs revenue, two-thirds of which comes from duties on precisely those fabrics." Such remarks as these are only samples of what we are likely to hear in the future. Our public men and merchants are destined to have their eyes opened most disagreeably, if they persist in our old mistake of regarding the political leaders of South America as children in arms, just the persons to be taken in by a little Yankee smartness. They will find that the republics to the south of us have as well-settled a commercial policy as our own, and at least as intelligent. They will have to encounter a sentiment of nationality as proud and strenuous as our own, quick to resent any attempt to disregard or override it. They will meet delegates fully their equals in education, skilled in diplomacy, versed in economic law, and far from proposing to take the iron by the hot end. In short, they will probably get another chance to learn the simple lesson they seem to find it so hard to master—that talk and tricks cannot circumvent the natural laws of trade.

As soon as the news of Mr. Blaine's selection as Secretary of State reached Spain, it caused a sensation in that country. The newspaper *El Imparcial* at once declared the announcement of the name of the new Secretary to be of the gravest importance to Spain. The Minister of Foreign Affairs said the same thing in the Cortes, and promptly moved that the squadron in the West Indies be immediately strengthened. It seemed to be generally felt that there was danger of the loss of Cuba, and patriotic talk about there not being money enough in the world to buy that island grew to be the common thing. But our portentous Secretary roared most gently in response to Spain's ruffling, and hastened to assure the haughty Dons, so the cable shortly told us, that they would find him the quietest and most peaceable man in the world. As to Cuba, his intentions were of the most honorable sort; all he wanted was to buy her sugar, not herself. Chili will doubt-

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less take courage at this and dismiss her fears. The *Estandarte Católico*, a paper published in Santiago, referred in its issue of March 4 to the probable accession of Mr. Blaine, "the famous ex-Minister and ex-candidate who gave us so much trouble in former years. We learn from private advices that Blaine, who makes no concealment of his hatred of Chili, perhaps on account of the unpleasant memories which the name suggests, will do everything possible, if he succeeds to the Secretaryship, to show us hostility." But this is to forget that Mr. Blaine has grown older in the past eight years, and is no longer the fighter he once was.

The opening of the Paris Exposition is so much like other events of the kind with which the public are now familiar, that there is little to be said of it from the mechanical or the artistic point of view. Notwithstanding the abstention of the great Powers of Europe and the temporary withdrawal of their ambassadors, the Exposition is a success. The action of the Powers in this matter will probably strengthen the republic as a form of government, since the alternative to it is some form of monarchy, Cæsarism being one of the forms. It is perhaps natural and excusable that the great Powers should decline to take part in the celebration of an event which cost them millions of lives and hundreds of millions of money. It is still an open question whether the French Revolution was a good thing or a bad thing for the world—whether the undoubtedly good results that flowed from it might not have been gained with less suffering and cost. But it is not doubtful that to the reigning families, the governing classes, and to Order as it is now represented and defended in Europe, the Revolution was hell upon earth. Therefore they need not be expected to show it any welcome to-day. To do so would be a false pretence. But the temporary withdrawal of their Ministers, lest their ears should be saluted with the music of the "Marseillaise," is a small business. No disturbance will grow out of it, but the effect of it on the French mind will probably be to confirm their attachment to the principles of the Revolution and to the Republic as the outcome of it.

Another stage has been reached in the German system of compulsory insurance for workmen. Our readers will remember that the legislation as it stands now provides for insurance against sickness and accident; the next step is to bring about compulsory provision for the care of permanent disability from old age or other cause. We have noted in these columns the first shape of the bill by which this part of the system is to be established, and in the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics* we find an account of the measure as it stands at the present session of the Reichstag. The original bill introduced by the Government was first modified by the Government itself, and has been further modified in the committee to which it was referred by the Reichstag. All the modifications are in the direction of more liberal provision for the workmen; and as the beneficiaries continue to pay only a third of the contributions (the other two-thirds being paid by the employers and by the Imperial Treasury, respectively), this means that a still heavier levy is made on the rest of the community for their advantage. The scheme has become more top-heavy, in that the pensions for the aged or disabled workmen are graded, varying according to the wages they have been earning. It remains entirely bureaucratic—the Government runs the machinery throughout; the approach to Socialism is nearer and nearer. Later advices inform us that the committee has completed its labors, and that its amended draft of the bill is ready for action by the Reichstag. The chances are that the measure will be passed, perhaps with more modifications. It will form the last important part of this gigantic scheme for help to the poor.

The *Indépendance Belge* recently published a report of a speech made in the Italian Parliament by Count Giusso, ex-Mayor of Naples, and now a deputy from that city, which sets forth in strong terms the great depression in agriculture, and the critical condition of the public finances, brought about by the new policy of protection and militarism. The Count recites the disastrous exhibit made by the foreign trade of Italy in 1888—exports decreased by $24,000,000, and imports by $42,000,000. He admits that some new branches of manufacture have become flourishing at the expense of the people, saying: "We have preferred the shop to the land; we have preferred the coal which we do not possess to our Italian sun; we have preferred the motive force of steam to the most powerful motive force in the universe—the sun; and we are naturally suffering the sad consequences." He makes a moving recital of the alarming distress existing in the agricultural provinces of the South, affirming that "the Utopian idea of creating an industrial Italy on the ruins of agricultural Italy, has been a colossal error, big with disastrous results." From one end of the Peninsula to the other the cry is, he says, "Give us the means of selling our products, and we will pay the taxes." All this certainly seems to be borne out by the late report to Parliament of the Chairman of the Budget Committee, Signor Luzzatti. He shows that the floating debt of the Treasury will be $100,000,000 by June 30, while the deficit for the current year will not be less than $46,000,000 if the increased military expenditures are put through as proposed. That Crispi shares the common opinion that the trouble is largely due to the abrogation of the French commercial treaty, is shown by his having got himself authorized by the Parliament to open negotiations with France for a new treaty. Yet there is a strong war party urging the Government to seize upon the chance for conquest just now offering itself in Abyssinia, and it is hard to say what the result will be.

Mr. Parnell's admission, before the Commission on Friday, that he had declared in a speech that the Land League had suppressed secret societies in Ireland, when he did not himself believe it, and had uttered the falsehood with the deliberate purpose of deceiving the House of Commons so as to prevent the passage of the Coercion Bill, is the most extraordinary and least comprehensible incident of the Irish trouble. It hardly needs examination from the moral side, but as a matter of policy it is a singular blunder for an astute man to commit. More flagrant fibs for the purpose of deceiving Parliament have been told by distinguished Englishmen—more flagrant because they concerned matters within their personal knowledge. The most noted was Lord Salisbury's in 1877, when he denied, in the House of Lords, the authenticity of the published copy of his secret understanding with Russia, with naked intent to deceive; but he did not afterwards get up and acknowledge that he had lied, and chuckle over it. Disraeli was a dexterous practitioner of the same mode of catching Parliamentary votes, but neither he nor Salisbury lost character with his party through his departures from truth, because he showed some respect for public opinion by keeping quiet after he was found out. Mr. Parnell had far stronger reasons for caution than either of them, as he spoke before a hostile or prejudiced community which already doubted his word, and because the fortunes not only of the Irish party, but one may almost say of the English Liberal party, depend on his coming well out of his present ordeal.

The explanation offered by Parnell on Tuesday only makes the affair more mysterious than before. On examining the speech, out of which the Attorney-General sought to prove him guilty of self-contradiction, he now says he discovers that what he said in the House of Commons was quite true—namely, that the League had extinguished "Ribbon Societies." So that it was when he said that he had deliberately tried to deceive the House of Commons that he was saying what was false. How so astute a man as he failed to examine the speech before answering the Attorney-General's question, and how, without examining it, he promptly confessed that in making it he asserted what he knew to be untrue, is, of course, inexplicable at this distance. His election as a life member of the National Liberal Club and his receiving the freedom of the city of Edinburgh since the affair occurred, seem to indicate that the Liberals explain it by some sort of nervous breakdown under the strain of a prolonged and trying cross-examination. The cross-examination ended on Wednesday morning, and, but for the above-named incident, without doing him any damage. Probably the slight importance apparently attached to it is in part due to the fact that the object of the proceeding is to connect Parnell with the promoters of crime and outrage; and this being so, the revelation that he told fibs in the House is deemed of comparatively small importance.

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NATHAN AND DAVID.

BISHOP POTTER'S address at St. Paul's on April 30 was remarkable in two ways. It was the first, and, indeed, we may say the only public and official attempt to call attention to the moral lessons of the occasion. It was he alone who reminded the public that the Constitution was not an automatic thing; that it did not work of itself; that the manner of its working and the results of its working depended on the moral and intellectual quality of the men behind it; that in a voyage in the "Ship of State" we are as much dependent for a happy and prosperous issue on the men who watch and steer, as in a voyage in one of the "ocean greyhounds." All, or nearly all, other commentators on the great anniversary have told us over and over how rich we have grown under the Constitution; how many miles of railroad we have made; what the increase in hogs, cattle, grain, banks, and coasting steamers has been since George Washington assumed the Presidency. Bishop Potter took on himself the solemn and salutary duty of asking whether, besides growing in wealth, we had in the last hundred years grown in grace; whether the statesmen of to-day were of the same type as those of Washington's day; whether they were living up to the standard of public duty which Washington set up; and in short, whether the Government was really travelling in the road on which the framers of the Constitution started it.

These questions have often during the last few years been put in books and pamphlets and addresses of one sort or another, but have for the most part wasted their force on the desert air. Bishop Potter has rendered us all the inestimable service of putting them, in church, in full canonicals, to the audience which they most concerned. The imaginary picture which he drew of Washington dealing with an office-seeker who asked that public office should be treated as "spoils" for his benefit, was as impressive—considering the surrounding circumstances—as anything recorded in literature since Nathan reminded David of all the trust the Lord had placed in him, and of the gross and shameless way in which he had abused it. The enterprise in which the people of the United States are engaged is, in truth, a moral far more than a commercial enterprise. Its final success depends far more on moral than on material conditions. The "business" view of it has a thousand trumpeters. Our politics is full of "business men," with their clubs and their organs. The last campaign was "a business" canvass, we are told, and the Cabinet is full of "business" men seeking and giving "business." The land is filled with the voice of the drummer proclaiming to all the world what a "business" country this is. Let us, therefore, be grateful to the preacher who rose up in his place in the pulpit, on the most solemn of our anniversaries, to remind us that nations do not live by "business" alone, but by recognizing and encouraging in the public service the qualities which alone make private life respectable or useful.

The second service which Bishop Potter has rendered to the community is in reminding the practitioners of the spoils system that they cannot in our day get rid of Mugwumpery and all that the term implies. They are constantly flattering themselves, especially when they win an election, that the Mugwumps have disappeared, and that their ears will be no more troubled by protests against gambling in the public offices and stealing money out of the Treasury as salaries for party hacks and adventurers. They are in this like the Indians on the plains, who, in former years, whenever they cut off a detachment of troops, thought they had killed all the white men there were, and that they should thereafter possess their hunting-grounds in peace. The spoilsmen have chosen to give the name of Mugwumps not only to everybody who finds fault with their system and exposes their little games, but to every office-holder who, by refusing to be active in politics and by displaying marked diligence and capacity in the discharge of his official duties, establishes a claim in the public eye to the permanent retention of his place. It was for this reason solely that they hated Mr. Pearson and hunted him to death. They are intent to-day on warning every man in the public service that he must not make himself conspicuous by his devotion to his duty, or in any way make himself a contrast to the general run of political "workers." They flatter themselves that by these and similar processes they will stamp out the pestilent notion that the Government is entitled to the same faithful service as the private employer, and owes its faithful servants the same confidence and rewards which the private employer owes to his.

Bishop Potter's utterances will do them a world of good in showing them that they are never safe from Mugwumps, and never will be safe as long as there exists in America a man or woman who hates fraud and injustice and cruelty. Probably the last place in the world in which they expected to see a Mugwump start up and warn them of the wrath to come was the pulpit of St. Paul's Church on the thirtieth day of April. It seemed even more unlikely that they should find their Nathan there than at a Plummer or Wanamaker "banquet;" and yet there he was, in prophet's robes, pouring on them a prophet's blasting scorn.

DISMISSAL OR REMOVAL.

THE *Watchman*, the Boston Baptist organ to which we referred last week as asking for a suspension of judgment with regard to President Harrison, has since then initiated a fresh wriggle touching Postmaster Pearson's removal. Admonishing the *National Baptist* on the sin of talking of Pearson's having been "displaced for political reasons during the closing hours of his life," the *Watchman* says, with an air of sadness:

> "We have noted not a little said in the same strain of remark with the above, but chiefly in the secular press. For the most part it is not difficult in all this to detect a spirit of a partisan, at least of a political animus quite akin to that spirit, which, in the same breath, is unsparingly condemned. 'Displaced,' as in the foregoing, 'removed,' 'turned out,' are the words used to characterize the matter of Mr. Pearson; all of which fail utterly to meet the case. Mr. Pearson was not 'removed' nor 'displaced.' He had served faithfully two successive terms, of four years each, the second term having expired with the advent of April, as his father-in-law, ex-Postmaster-General James, had served—with Mr. Pearson as his assistant—since 1873; an administrative term never, certainly in New York, paralleled as to its length in the same family. He was simply not reappointed for a third term."

We wonder whether the writer of this has ever asked himself why four years or eight years should be considered long enough for an able and competent man to remain in charge of an important business. Has it ever occurred to him to inquire whether the Superintendent of the Adams Express Company or the Manager of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company every year calls into his presence those of his subordinates who have held their places for four years and addresses them as follows?—"I have, gentlemen, the highest appreciation of your talents and character. You have done your work admirably and the company is much indebted to you. But you have got to go. Every one of you has held his place for four years, and some of you, by an extraordinary stretch of indulgence, for eight years. You know as well as I do that four years is the American business cycle—that is, the period for which an American ought to stay in any one place. No one ought to keep a business place on a salary more than four years, because the object of the business is, of course, to give the largest possible number of persons a hack at the salaries. There are now many applicants for each of your places, who have been for some time urging me to dismiss you at once, in order that they might have their turn in carrying on our business; but I have shown them the absurdity and unfairness of dismissing you until you had served four years, and they have generally acquiesced in my reasoning. The fact is, when you go at the end of four years, or at the end of eight, you are not dismissed at all, or displaced either. You simply fail to be reappointed. You might say you were discharged, or removed, if you had to go at the end of two years, or three years, or six years; but I challenge any man within the sound of my voice to say whether he thinks he is removed when he goes away at the end of a quadrennial term. Doubtless those of you who have spent eight years in our service may find it difficult to get other employment, and your families may suffer in consequence, but no right-minded man will repine under this when he remembers that he is cast on the world under the quadrennial rule. He suffers from this as he suffers from cold in winter, but no one is to blame because winter comes."

The editor of the *Watchman*, if he were present at such a scene as this, would be both amused and indignant, and yet its absurdity in the case of Postmaster Pearson is just as great as it would be in the case of the railroad employees. Such is the effect of long usage in blunting even the commonest business perceptions. The four-year term, when enacted in 1820, was simply meant

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to provide a period at which officers intrusted with the public funds would necessarily have to make an accounting. It was found that, owing to a faulty system of inspection, or the absence of any system, officers who were in default were frequently allowed to run on for years without being brought to book. So it was provided that every such officer's term should legally expire in four years from the date of his appointment, so that at that date he would be compelled to make an accounting. When the spoilsmen came into power under Jackson, this act was eagerly seized on as a good mode of applying the hog theory to the public service—the theory, that is, that the public service is a fund paid out in salaries which a certain number of individuals are entitled to share in their turn. So they soon made it appear that, at the end of four years, not only should an officer make an accounting and submit to an audit, but should vacate his place, so that somebody else might get some of the "pap" he had enjoyed during this period. This doctrine has through mere familiarity permeated the intellectual apparatus of great numbers of good people, like the editor of the *Watchman*, until at last they have come really to believe that there is some principle of government which requires that an efficient and experienced officer should be dismissed, by not being reappointed, at the end of four years, although, if they heard of a railroad president or the superintendent of an express company carrying on his business in this way, they would think him crazy.

"THE TOBACCO FRAUDS."

On the 25th of February last, Secretary Fairchild wrote a letter to the United States District Attorney in this city, submitting certain "facts" to him to see whether "therein there was sufficient evidence to convict certain guilty parties of violation of the statutes" against fraud in collection of the revenue on Sumatra tobacco. He then continued:

> "This I leave to your better judgment; but I consider that Assistant-Appraiser Sturges and Examiner Hammill knowingly aided in admitting this tobacco to entry upon false classification, and upon payment of less than the amount of duties legally due thereon, and I have therefore caused their dismissal from the service. Appraiser McMullen's attitude towards the whole matter was one of such indifference and inefficiency, and this was so in accord with much of his conduct heretofore, that I procured his dismissal; but I am not disposed to believe that he wilfully aided in this attempted fraud, and therefore I do not ask you to prosecute him. Upon consultation with the Collector, you may determine that you can also make a case against some of the owners of the tobacco."

It will be seen that he here charges two of his subordinates with an indictable offence, finds them guilty himself, and inflicts on them the terrible punishment of dismissal in disgrace, and in the same breath asks the District Attorney to see whether there was "sufficient evidence" against them for an indictment. Be it remembered, "sufficient evidence" to warrant their dismissal with public opprobrium must be sufficient evidence to warrant their indictment and trial. If Mr. Fairchild's "facts" justified his inflicting this frightful injury on two officers of long standing in the service, on his own mere motion, they must necessarily have justified the submission of the charge to a jury. When a grand jury finds an indictment, it does not say that the charge is proved. It simply says that there is good ground for judicial inquiry.

We felt sure all along that there was no more substance in these "tobacco frauds" than in the "sugar frauds"; that they were both concocted in support of a scheme of long standing for getting rid of Mr. McMullen, the Appraiser, and of as many of his Republican assistants as possible, so as to leave Assistant-Secretary Maynard a clearer field for his peculiar operations. We were, therefore, not at all surprised to learn last week that District-Attorney Walker had reported to the Attorney-General, that there were no facts sufficient to maintain an indictment, and that nothing more would be heard of "the tobacco frauds." So far so good. But this failure to indict, this confession that there was no evidence which the Grand Jury would consider reasonable ground for suspicion, does not redress the great wrong of which ex-Secretary Fairchild has been guilty. He has printed in a public official executive document (No. 142), thus making it a privileged communication and putting himself beyond the reach of legal punishment at the hands of his victims, a charge of the most disgraceful character, which they have no opportunity of answering, and which must for ever remain a deep injury and mortification to themselves and their children. He has added injury to the insult, so far as lay in his power, by dismissing them from the service a few days before he himself went out of office. Should a public officer be allowed to commit acts of such atrocious cruelty and injustice, and then quietly escape into private life with the reputation of a reformer? We think not, and there are few honest and intelligent men who will not agree with us. Mr. Sturges, the Assistant Appraiser, who has been stigmatized in this outrageous way, and in nineteen years of service has borne an excellent character, did not actually examine the bales of tobacco in which the alleged frauds occurred. The actual work was done in the usual course by an examiner, and yet throughout Mr. Fairchild's letter, line after line, and paragraph after paragraph, the whole work is described as having been done "by Sturges," with the obvious intention of representing him as the direct perpetrator of the alleged fraud.

What aggravates Mr. Fairchild's offence is the peculiar nature of the duty on Sumatra tobacco. Sumatra tobacco consists of large, strong, flexible leaves, which are imported into this country solely for the purpose of making cigar wrappers. The law under which duty is levied on it makes it liable to 35 cents per pound if the pound contains less than 100 leaves; to 75 cents per pound if the pound contains more than 100 leaves. It will be readily seen from this that it must often depend on the weight of a single leaf whether any particular pound pays 35 cents or 75 cents. Moreover, the tobacco in the bale is more or less charged with moisture, and a pound drawn out from the bale, which, when first exposed to the air is only liable to 35 cents, may, after fifteen or twenty minutes of desiccation, become liable to 75 cents. The bales, too, are examined by sample. A few "hands" or bunches of the tobacco, each fastened with a string, are drawn forth, and the whole bale is assessed according to their weights. The temptations to fraud created by this ridiculous mode of levying the duty are plainly great; but so is the liability to honest error. Both facts have to be borne in mind by any one proposing to attack the character or livelihood of an appraising officer.

In the present case the amount of which the Government, according to Mr. Fairchild, was defrauded was $6,354.52. The number of bales on which the alleged fraud was perpetrated was 275. To assess the duty on these, 29 were examined by sample in the manner described. Of these latter, 24 were reëxamined, also by sample, by the Secretary's order, in order to detect the fraud.

The samples drawn per bale weighed from 2¼ to 3¼ pounds, or about 1½ per cent. of the weight of the bale. The number of leaves drawn from each bale ranged from 220 to 359. The general range of count of leaves was from 5 to 0 above and below the dividing line between the rates of 35 and 75 cents; the extreme departure from that line being 12 above and 14 below. The weight of the "hands" ranged from 2 19-32 ounces to 6 24-32 ounces. A single bale taken at random shows the following departures from the dividing line for the ten hands drawn, in their order: 6 leaves below, 11 above, 2 above, 3 below, 2 above, 1 below, 9 above, 5 above, 6 above, and 3 above. Taking these facts together, it is perfectly safe to say that the bales in both importations run exceedingly close to the dividing line, and that two successive drawings of samples for classification would be as little apt to produce the same result as would two successive turns of a kaleidoscope.

The most important fact in this connection is that a slight fluctuation in the examined samples between the first and the second inspections is quite sufficient to account for even a much larger discrepancy in results, as regards amount of duty, than is shown in this case; for it must be borne in mind that a change from 35 cents to 75 cents in the rate is an advance in duty of over 114 per cent. upon all the tobacco affected by such change, and *that a single leaf in the count may produce that change for an entire bale;* or say 180 pounds at 40 cents (the amount of advance) would give an increase in duty of $72. That this is not fanciful can be shown by practical illustration from the statements in the document before us:

Lot No. 1, *ex P. Caland*, contains twenty bales, weighing 3,373½ pounds, all originally classified at the 35 cents rate, but reclassified—80 per cent. at 35 cents and 20 per

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cent. at 75 cents—giving aggregate amounts, viz.:

First classification	$1,180 67
Second classification	1,450 51
Difference in duty	$269 84

Upon a reference to the statement of details relating to the examined bale No. 579, it will be seen that in the count of 304 leaves drawn, the transfer of a single leaf from one hand to another would increase the above difference 50 per cent., making it $404.76, instead of $269.84.

We might carry these illustrations further, but the above is sufficient to show the extraordinary recklessness with which Mr. Fairchild acted in attacking the character of his subordinates and driving them from the service. There ought to be some legal remedy for such gross abuses of power. A civil service worthy of the country will not be obtainable until such a remedy is provided.

CANADIAN AND AMERICAN RAILROADS.

A COMMITTEE of the United States Senate, in pursuance of a resolution of that body, has commenced an inquiry to learn whether any railroad lines located in the United States are owned, operated, or controlled by the Grand Trunk Railway Company, the Canadian Pacific, or any other company or corporation; whether commerce originating in the United States is diverted from American to Canadian lines, and if so to what extent and by what means; and whether there is any discrimination in the charges made for tolls or otherwise against American vessels which pass through the Welland and St. Lawrence Canals. The Committee are charged also to "inquire fully into the question of the regulation of the commerce carried on by railroads or water routes between the United States and Canada, and to represent what legislation, if any, is necessary for the protection of the commercial interests of the United States, or to promote the enforcement of the Act to Regulate Commerce, approved February 4, 1887"; the act referred to being the Inter-State Commerce Act.

The phrase "protection of the commercial interests of the United States" has an ominous sound, because the accepted meaning of protection is to give one citizen or class of citizens an advantage over others, both being Americans. Commercial interests always include two parties, sellers and buyers; but when we talk of protecting commercial interests we always mean the interests of the seller. For all purposes of legislation the buyer is completely ignored, and mainly for the reason that he does not take pains to make himself heard and felt at Washington city. Government is a corporation in which the only effective shareholders are those who stir about and make a noise and a fuss. This, we judge, is what certain railroads have been doing. They are sellers of transportation, and they want protection against the competition of the Canadian railroads that enter our territory.

Mr. Joseph Nimmo, Jr., has been firing off pamphlets on this subject at intervals for two or three years, in which the grievance of competition with the "subsidized" Pacific Railway of Canada is set forth in a glaring way. "From the very beginning," says Mr. Nimmo in his latest essay, "the projectors and promoters of that enterprise, in making a commercial survey of this country from the Atlantic to the Pacific, were in the habit of using expressions which seemed to say: 'Moab is my washpot, over Edom will I cast out my shoe.'" If anything of this sort can be proved before the Committee, means must be found, of course, to improve the ideas of the Canadians and their manner of putting them to us. The particular expression which brings Moab and Edom into Mr. Nimmo's recollection is found in an official publication of the Canadian Government, in which it is said: "Already notes of alarm have been sounded by the American press at the manner in which the Canadian Pacific Railway is cutting into the business of the transcontinental roads of the United States." Now, cutting into the business of a railroad can only be accomplished by doing it at lower rates. This is especially true where the cutting road is a longer and more roundabout route. The Canadian Pacific Railroad, for most purposes of competition with our lines, runs on three sides of a parallelogram, while ours run on the fourth side. At equal rates, therefore, it would get no competitive business. It can only compete successfully by offering lower rates, and this, we believe, it does not do at present. Mr. Van Horne, the President of the Canadian Pacific Company, in a brief letter to Mr. Nimmo, says that the business done by his road from one American point to another does not constitute 4 per cent. of its earnings. If it constituted 40 per cent., it ought not to be interfered with by Congress, unless the law-making power, contrary to all recent examples, is going to busy itself with means to raise the cost of railroad transportation to the shipper. Both the Western farmer and the Eastern manufacturer are content to be considered the washpot of Moab, and to be pelted with the shoe-leather of Edom, if these come in the form of lower rates of fare and freight.

It may be, however, that the Inter-State Commerce Act has weighted our own lines with burdens and conditions which make the competition of Canadian roads unfair. The Grand Trunk Railway was found recently to be carrying coal from Buffalo to Hamilton and other points in Canada for seventy-five cents per ton, although its published schedule of charges was one dollar. The Michigan Central Company complained of this as a violation of the Inter-State Commerce Act. The Grand Trunk contended that its Canadian line was not subject to the act, and that, if it were, no damage or injury had been shown to have resulted from its action in the premises. Both points were overruled by the Commission, and it was ordered to make its charges conformable to its published tariffs.

It would be very strange if facts had not transpired since the passage of the Commerce Act showing the need of special treatment and amendment as regards the relations of the Canadian and American railways. The investigation will, doubtless, tell what these are and suggest the proper course to be pursued. But it should be understood that any measure for the "protection" of our railways against those of Canada means that our people should be compelled to pay more money for transportation than it might be had for. The public will be able to see this when it is put before them, even if they cannot see the true color of protection when it comes to them in the form of manufactured goods.

THE CUNEIFORM TABLETS OF TELL EL-AMARNA.

PHILADELPHIA, April 25.

PROF. SAYCE calls Egypt the land of surprises. A recent and most remarkable surprise is the finding of an official correspondence carried on some three thousand years ago between Egypt, Babylonia, and other Eastern districts. As often happens with important finds, the discovery was purely accidental. Fellaheen, while searching for bricks to serve as building material in the mounds at Tell El-Amarna, a village lying about one hundred miles to the south of Cairo, came across several hundred small clay tablets covered on both sides with cuneiform characters. The tablets were offered for sale in Cairo; as the result of a competition that naturally ensued in archæological circles, the Berlin Museum carried off the lion's share with about 160 tablets, the British Museum secured 81 pieces, the Bulak Museum about 60, while some 70 are still in private possession. Such is the simple story of a discovery that turns out to be of the first magnitude.

From Egyptian and other sources it was known that King Amenophis IV. of Egypt, who reigned about 1,300 years before this present era, had established an official residence on the site of the modern Tell El-Amarna. Owing to the religious reformation which he attempted to carry out in his kingdom (his aim apparently having been to establish sun-worship alone, in place of the prevailing polytheism), this ruler is generally known as the "heretic" King. He failed in the attempt, and soon after his death the city he founded was deserted and fell into decay. Extensive mounds alone remain to testify to the former grandeur of the place, but there is little doubt that a thorough excavation would bring to light considerable portions of the buildings at present buried beneath accumulations of dust and rubbish. That the palace of Amenophis IV. actually stood at Tell El-Amarna is now fully confirmed by the precious tablets that were taken out of the mounds, for the greater number of them are letters written in the Babylonian-Assyrian language, addressed to none other than this very king. The material on which these curious letters are written is the soft clay commonly employed by the Babylonians, from whom the custom was adopted by the Assyrians. The conservative instincts of Oriental nations led to the retention of this material, even at a time when the more convenient papyrus was already known to the Babylonians, much as we, in the age of paper, still use the mediæval parchment for certain official documents. The average size of the tablets is three inches square, but some are as large as nine by five inches.

Passing to the contents of these tablets, we find that they open up a vista of the relations existing between the political powers of a gray antiquity, which is to the highest degree surprising. We find the diplomatic intercourse

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between Egypt and Babylonia to be far more lively and intimate than we had any reason to suppose; we see Egypt maintaining close relations with other countries, scarcely known to us by aught but their names, though they must at one time have played no insignificant part; we see the rulers of the Nile receiving regular reports from their officers stationed in various quarters. Only a small proportion of the tablets have as yet been published, and of these not all have been fully deciphered. Scholars are now at work on the collections in Berlin and London; but enough has appeared to enable us to form a general idea of the nature of the more important of the letters. Even at the present imperfect stage of our knowledge, we are warranted in drawing certain conclusions of considerable moment.

Among the correspondents of the Egyptian King, there is one who has a special interest for us, from the fact that he was already known from the monuments in cuneiform writing which we possess. He is Burnaburiash, the King of Babylon. On a brick found in southern Babylonia several decades ago, this King, styling himself (in accordance with official custom) the "powerful," commemorates a temple that he erected in honor of the sun-god; it was no small surprise to scholars to meet with his name again on a tablet found in a locality so far removed from Babylonia as Tell El-Amarna. For reasons that need not be detailed here, the identity of the two Burnaburiashes in question is beyond all reasonable doubt, and we have thus obtained an exceedingly important meeting-point of Egyptian and Babylonian chronology. In one tablet to the Egyptian King, the Babylonian, after referring to an unpleasant message that he had received from his Egyptian colleague, calls upon the latter to give him renewed assurances of his good will and confirm the friendly relations formerly existing between the two countries. As an index of his own peaceful policy, Burnaburiash recalls the presents that on former occasions he had despatched to the Egyptian court. The latter part of the tablet is unfortunately quite mutilated, and the continuation is therefore somewhat obscure. It appears that Burnaburiash lodged a complaint against Amenophis for an injury that had been inflicted on a Babylonian, and demanded an explanation and also the payment of damages. It is evident that a regular diplomatic intercourse had existed between Egypt and Mesopotamia for some time previous—how long before the reign of Burnaburiash, it is of course impossible to say; but as the latter is a monarch of the so-called Kossæan dynasty, with whom a new era in the political history of Babylonia begins, it is not too hazardous to date the beginning of the interchange of messages between Egypt and Mesopotamia from at least the rise of this dynasty—that is, about the sixteenth century. As far as we know, the relations between the two countries were always of a friendly character, which is in itself a rather remarkable fact, for the monuments both of Egypt and Mesopotamia as a rule speak only of wars and devastations, rarely of peace and good will.

Apart from its contents, the letter is also interesting from its opening formulas, in which the Babylonian embodies a greeting to his brother, much as an Eastern potentate would do to-day. The letter begins:

"To Naphuria (surname of Amenophis) the great King, the King of Egypt, thus speaks Burnaburiash, the great King, the King of Babylonia, thy brother. To me and my house, to my horses and chariots, to my officers and my country, may there be abundance of peace. To my brother and his house, to his horses and to his chariots, to his officers and his country, may there be an abundance of peace."

Horses apparently took precedence, in the eyes of these rulers, of human beings, though, on the other hand, we must remember that by horses are here meant war-horses, and the expression "horses and chariots" is but a synonym for army.

Even more interesting is the correspondence that passed between Egypt and a ruler who calls himself Dushratta, King of Mitanni. Some of the letters are addressed to Amenophis IV., but others to the latter's father, Amenophis III. We may properly suppose that the son carried the correspondence with him as "official archives" upon the removal of the seat of residence to Tell El-Amarna. Most important among these are the letters which refer to the marriage of Dushratta's daughter to Amenophis III. From Egyptian sources, we already knew that the latter had married an Oriental princess. We now encounter a most remarkable confirmation of this testimony, and in the Tell El-Amarna tablets we have a great part of the correspondence in which the details of the marriage, including what appears to be the marriage dowry, are settled. Dushratta in this correspondence addresses Amenophis invariably as his son-in-law. It may not be uninteresting to give also the introductory formulas used in this correspondence, which varies somewhat from the one above quoted:

"To Nimmuria (surname of Amenophis III.), the great King of Egypt, my brother and son-in-law, whom I love and who loves me, speak as follows: Dushratta, the great King, the King of Mitanni, thy brother and father-in-law, who loves thee. Peace to me; to my brother and son-in-law peace; to thy house, thy wives, thy nobles, thy men, thy chariots, thy horses, thy land and all that belongs to thee, peace in abundance."

It will be noticed that the message is not directed to Amenophis, but to the messenger who is asked to make the announcement that follows to the Egyptian King. The tablet in such a case serves the purpose of a memorandum for the messenger, who is supposed to execute his commission by word of mouth. Dr. Winckler of Berlin is of the opinion that this indirect form represents the older and Babylonian method of sending a message, and that the direct one is due to an innovation introduced by the Assyrians. It is hardly possible to pronounce definitively on this point at present, but the suggestion is an interesting one. Of the land of Mitanni we know almost nothing. A notice in the inscription of a great Assyrian King who ruled in the twelfth century before this era, enables us to fix its position approximately in the northwestern corner of Mesopotamia. The same notice informs us that it was a favorite hunting-ground. It is interesting to note that Amenophis III., too, was very fond of the chase. On a scarabæus he tells us that he slew over one hundred lions by his own hand. We also know from Egyptian sources that he visited Mesopotamia. It has been ingeniously conjectured that, while chasing lions and bulls in the forests of Mitanni, he met the lady of his love at the court of Dushratta.

Egyptian monuments tell us that the name of this princess whom Amenophis married was Thi or Thna, which fact likewise receives a most striking confirmation from another of the Tell El-Amarna tablets, in which a woman, Ti, is incidentally referred to as the mother of Amenophis IV. The alliance between the royal families of Egypt and Mitanni led to further marriage negotiations in the succeeding generation. This same Dushratta, in another tablet, sends a despatch to Amenophis IV., in which he states that Manê, his "brother's grandson," is desirous of winning the affections of a fair Egyptian, who was none other than the daughter of Amenophis IV. Dushratta hopes that the King will look favorably upon the petition, and that he will grant Manê permission to pay a visit to the Egyptian court. He also recalls the amicable relations which have hitherto existed between the two kingdoms, and, in addition to sweet words, sends his Egyptian colleague handsome presents and large quantities of gold. He also hints that there is more to follow if Amenophis consents to the marriage. Politics in those early days, it will be seen, did not differ so very much from modern conditions.

In addition to Burnaburiash and Dushratta, there are quite a number of other correspondents who send messages of various kinds to the Egyptian court. Among these, the most important, again, so far as ascertained, is a ruler of the country of Alashia. Several despatches of this King have been found, but unfortunately in all the name of the ruler is broken off. As for the country itself, this is the first mention of it that has ever been met with. From the contents of the letter, however, it is evident that it must have been a dominion of no little importance. This King, too, addresses Amenophis as his brother, refers to his wives, nobles, horses, and chariots, and evidently was on a footing of familiarity with the mighty Pharaoh. So far as they have been deciphered, the letters speak chiefly of an exchange of commodities between the two rulers.

Finally, there are to be mentioned the reports to Amenophis from Egyptian governors and officers stationed in various quarters. Little has as yet been deciphered of this division of the find, but it is more than probable that the reports contain information which will enrich our knowledge of the political history of ancient Egypt. The names of the places whence the despatches are sent excite the greatest interest. Among these we read Sidon, Jaffa, Megiddo, Ascalon, Byblus, and other places on the Phœnician coast and in the interior of Palestine.

An exceedingly curious and noteworthy circumstance is the fact that this correspondence with the Egyptian court should have been carried on in Babylonian, and not (as we had reason to expect) in Egyptian. That Burnaburiash should make use of Babylonian may be natural, but that Dushratta, whose language was certainly far different, probably not even Semitic, should do so, is rather surprising. This, together with the fact that the Egyptian officials stationed in Phœnicia and elsewhere also employ the Babylonian language, shows conclusively that its use and knowledge were not limited to the land where it arose. It would seem, indeed, though the conclusion appears somewhat hazardous, that Babylonian occupied an important position as the language of diplomatic intercourse among the Powers of antiquity, much as French did until recently among the European Powers, and as Latin did in the Middle Ages. There is no doubt, moreover, that these tablets were actually read by the Egyptian officials into whose charge they were given. Many of them still show traces of marks made by the Egyptian scribes to assist them in separating the words from one another. Others contain annotations and memoranda certifying to the receipt of the despatch and the date of its arrival, but written in the ordinary Egyptian characters and language. So one of these subscripts informs us that a certain letter was received at the time that the court was in Thebes, mentioning the year of the King's reign and the day of the month.

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Another proof that the Egyptians devoted themselves to the study of the Babylonian cuneiform is furnished by a tablet with mythological contents found in the Tell El-Amarna collection. The tablet is marked by dots of Egyptian origin that separate the words, and evidently served the purpose of a "reading-book" used by some scribe while acquiring the very difficult and intricate cuneiform system.

There is little reason to question now that the soil of Egypt contains further treasures such as have been found at Tell El-Amarna. The discovery of this remarkable correspondence is as rich in the promises it holds out for the future as in the direct gain which results from it. A few years ago several cylinders inscribed with cuneiform characters were found in Egypt which, upon examination, proved to be documents deposited by the great Nebuchadnezzar in the sixth century while in Egypt, in commemoration of his campaign against the land of the Nile. Between the days of Burnaburiash and those of Nebuchadnezzar the contact between Mesopotamia and Egypt, now more close, now less so, now of a friendly, now of a hostile character, was never entirely broken. We may confidently look forward to having one day in our possession tolerably complete records of this contact.

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

FRANCE UNDER THE OLD REGIME.

PARIS, April 18, 1889.

I MENTIONED at the time it was published a volume by the Vicomte de Broc on 'France under the Old Régime, its Government and Institutions.' In this volume, M. de Broc undertook to give an account of the political and administrative state of France under what we familiarly call the "ancien régime." He now gives us a second volume, in which he undertakes to paint the manners, the intellectual and moral state of the country, before the Revolution. He is not a mere "laudator temporis acti," but he surveys French society impartially, and shows its defects as well as its qualities.

To understand a society well, we must first look at its education. In the old times, education varied according to the class into which a child was born. There was no uncertainty, no vocation: a young man was expected to do as his fathers had done; a nobleman could only become a soldier or enter the Church. The girls were generally educated in a convent, whether they belonged to the nobility or to the bourgeoisie. M. de Broc gives some curious facts touching the cost of their education. The 'État de la Ville de Paris' in 1757 has the prices of board (*pension*) in the convents of Paris; the board varied between 400 and 600 livres, not including the dresses, light, fuel, or washing. There was, besides, 300 livres for a maid when she was required. In the fashionable convent of Penthemont (where the Princesse de Ligne was educated—see the 'Histoire d'une grande dame au dix-huitième siècle,' by Lucien Perey), the price of board went as high as 1,000 francs. Girls belonging to the financial and judicial world were more moderate: they paid from 250 to 350 livres in various convents, such as the Dames de Sainte-Maria, the Cordelières, the Chanoinesses de St.-Augustin, etc.

For a century, Saint-Cyr received the poorer girls belonging to the nobility; they were 250 in number, and had to prove four degrees of nobility at least, on the paternal side. Would you have an idea of their life? They got up at six in the morning, heard mass every day at eight, worked till twelve, the dinner hour; the recess lasted till two, when the work began again till six o'clock; they went to bed at nine. A very severe life, as you see—quite as severe as the life of the boys educated in the colleges of the Jesuits. There were four classes at Saint-Cyr, and the complete education included grammar, catechism, sacred history, general history, geography, mythology, music, dancing, French literature. You will note this element of mythology, now almost completely wanting in all our systems of education. Many girls learned Latin and philosophy; Mme. de Sévigné and Mme. de Lafayette knew Latin, Mme. de Grignan was familiar with Descartes; Mme. Dacier translated Homer; later we see Mme. Du Châtelet, the friend of Voltaire, studying Newton. In his "Femmes Savantes" Molière attacked pedantry in women, not real learning. The "Précieuses" had made themselves ridiculous, but Fénelon, in his 'Éducation des filles,' insisted upon the necessity of a solid education for women.

It is not so easy to defend the *ancien régime* on the subject of marriage. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries did not allow much choice in this matter; the marriages were always arranged by the families, and treated as mere matters of business. The Duc de Nivernais was fourteen years old when he was married to a daughter of the Comte de Pontchartrain, aged fifteen. I could cite hundreds of such examples. When Mlle. de Sully was presented to Du Moulin, for the celebration of her marriage with M. de Rohan, she was so small that Du Moulin asked if she was presented for baptism. There are amusing details in Dangeau, in Mme de Sévigné, in Bussy-Rabutin, on such marriages between mere children. It is easy to imagine that these were not always happy. The Princess Palatine wrote in 1721: "To love one's children is a very common thing; to love one's wife is completely out of fashion. . . . Among people of quality I hardly know one example of affection and fidelity." The Princess was, perhaps, too severe, as well as Montesquieu, who writes in his 'Lettres Persanes': "Here, in Paris, a husband who loves his wife is a man who has not sufficient merit to make himself beloved by another." Dancourt, the dramatic author, says in his 'Bourgeoises de qualité' (1692): "Jealousy is a bourgeois passion which is hardly known among people of quality."

Paternal authority was much greater in old times than it is in our century; the father was the Roman paterfamilias, and had an almost despotic power. In the 'Roman bourgeois,' one of the rare novels which describe the inner life of the old bourgeoisie, you may read: "We were seven children in the house, all wearing beards, but the boldest would not have dared to cough or to spit in the presence of my father: a word of his made the house tremble." Chateaubriand, in his 'Mémoires d'Outre-tombe,' describes graphically the terror which he felt in presence of his father in the old castle of Combourg. The right of primogeniture was never as absolute in France as it is even now in England; all over the South, which had kept the Roman law, it did not exist. The custom of Paris gave to the eldest a separate portion, and besides, two-thirds of all the remainder if there were two children, one-half if there were more. The customs of Maine, Anjou, Tours, Loudun, Poitou, Blois, Angers, gave to the eldest two-thirds of the estate.

M. de Broc gives curious details on dress under the *ancien régime*, and on the mode and expense of living. His documents are, on this last point, the budget established by Mme. de Maintenon, in 1679, for her brother, the Comte d'Aubigné, who had just been married, and, at a later period, the budget of the painter, Joseph Vernet (taken from Léon Lagrange's biography of Joseph Vernet). Mme. de Maintenon was an admirable housekeeper. "Your eating expense (*dépense de bouche*) must not exceed six thousand livres a year [and she reckons four lackeys and two coachmen in the household, as well as three women and a valet]; let us add a thousand livres for the dress of Mme. d'Aubigné, as, with what I give her, it will be quite enough; then a thousand livres for the wages and dresses of the domestics; a thousand for the rent of the house; three thousand for your clothes, the opera, and sundry expenses." This amounts in all to 12,000 livres, for a household of twelve people. Joseph Vernet lodged in the house, and, having no rent to pay, spent about 10,000 livres. In all the budgets of old times, the dress of the gentleman enters for a larger sum than the dresses of the lady. The servants are more numerous and are satisfied with much smaller wages. M. and Mme. d'Épinay, when they married, had immediately sixteen servants. Among the small bourgeoisie the servants were almost exclusively women, and Molière's plays show us what important members of the household these women often were. They remained in the same family all their lives, and became almost members of it. The *menu* of a family dinner was, in 1740, very much what it is now. Brillat-Savarin gives us, in his 'Physiologie du Goût,' such a *menu* for ten people, and it could serve now under the same circumstances. Some fashions have changed: the plates were only changed three times during a dinner—after the soup, an invariable part of a French dinner, after the second course, and during the dessert, after the cheese.

Life in Paris has often been described. The 'Tableau de Paris,' by Mercier, is still found in a complete library. M. de Broc gives us, after the description of the capital in past times, a monograph on life at court, at Versailles; he shows us life in the provinces—first in the cities, afterwards in the châteaux. The great events in the cities were the solemn "entrées" of princes and governors; many of them were made the subject of fine publications, with engravings, which are now much valued by bibliophiles. Life has always been deemed more agreeable in Paris than in the provinces; the very word "provincial" savors of contempt. Hear what La Bruyère says of small cities in general: "I approach a small town and I am already on the height from which it is discerned. It is on the slope; a river goes round its walls and then enters a fine meadow; a thick forest protects it against the north wind. I see it in so good a light that I can count its towers and its churches; it looks as if it were grouted against the side of the hill. I say to myself: 'What pleasure it must be to live under such a beautiful sky and in so delicious a place.' I go down into the city, and I have not slept two nights in it before I feel like all its inhabitants—I want to get out of it." Lesage, in his "Turcaret," criticises the small divisions and jealousies of the provincial towns.

As for life in the châteaux, we do not possess many documents. Mme. de Sévigné describes minutely her daily existence at the Rochers, in Brittany, in her charming style: "Such is the rule of our convent; we inscribe over the door: 'Holy Liberty,' or 'Do as you like.' No numerous gatherings of people, no festivities." "When I am out of Paris," says she, "I want nothing but the country." She is not afraid of solitude, she dislikes importunate visitors. Very different was the life led at the magnificent Château de Grignan, but the Comte de Grignan was governor of his province and had

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to entertain many people: he kept open table all the time. There is nothing in our modern life which can equal in magnificence the existence of the Duc de Choiseul at Chanteloup. We have on this subject an excellent document in the letters of the Abbé Barthélemy to Mme. du Deffand. It must be noted, however, that, with all this magnificence, there was not much of what we now call comfort, and the same may be said even of Versailles. We find curious notes also on the Château de Brienne in a book by M. Babeau (Troyes, 1877). This château was inhabited in the last century by Comte Loménie de Brienne. There were almost always as many as forty guests at the château, each of whom had a complete apartment. Babeau has described also the Château de la Chapelle-Godefroy, inhabited by Orry, the Controller-General of the Finances, and by Jean de Boullogne, *after him*, who was also Controller-General. Diderot shows us the existence of Baron d'Holbach at Grandval, in his letters to Mlle. Voland, as well as the life of Mme. d'Épinay at Chevrette. Arthur Young, in his 'Travels,' says at Aiguillon, which had been rebuilt by the Duc d'Aiguillon, one of Louis XV.'s Ministers, after he fell into disgrace: "Exile forces the French nobility to do what the English do for their pleasure, to reside on their domains and to embellish them"; but he is found reversing this judgment at Liancourt, in the Duc de Larochefoucauld's house: "I recognized at Liancourt the falseness of all the views I had formed before my journey concerning a French country-house. I expected to find a copy of the capital, I was in error. Life and occupation resemble much more those of the residence of an English lord than people would generally imagine. You find tea for your breakfast; then you can ride, hunt, look at the plantations, the gardens; you dine at half-past two instead of the old hour of twelve; music, chess, all the other amusements of a drawing-room help you to spend the remaining hours, as well as a library of seven or eight thousand volumes."

M. de Broc ends his interesting volume with details on the modes of travelling in France, on the post-office, the newspapers, and the country theatres in the provinces during the period which preceded the French Revolution.

Correspondence.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT DELPHI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just received the *Nation* of March 28, containing Mr. Stillman's letter on the proposed excavations at Delphi. Mr. Stillman says "that if the directors of our School of Hellenic Studies at Athens understood the position of the proposed excavations at Delphi, it would not be possible for them to enter into the proposed bargain with the Delphini for the privilege of uncovering what may chance to remain of the appurtenances of the Oracle." I feel bound to send a brief reply to Mr. Stillman's letter, as being one of the directors of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, and as having taken some trouble to "understand the position of the proposed excavations at Delphi." I have had direct sources of information *from all sides*. At this moment I have in my possession the state papers relating to agreements and valuations, and I returned from Delphi last week, where, in company with Mr. Rolfe of this School, with all the papers before me, I studied the site and had communication with the representatives of the people of Delphi.

I am fully convinced of Mr. Stillman's good intentions, and, in many respects, sympathize with his views; but he ought to have taken a little more trouble in ascertaining the facts. I do not wish at the present moment to enter into the whole question of excavations at Delphi; but I may mention the fact that Mr. Stillman is wrong when he asserts that "the price of the village has been raised from about $25,000, which is the highest value that can be put on it, to $80,000." I have before me the official valuation made by the French surveyors, as well as that made by the Greeks, and I can assure him that their estimate is considerably more than double that amount. He is furthermore misinformed concerning the action of the other schools. The German School has taken no steps whatever in the matter, and has neither "refused to enter into such competition," nor "has it recognized the moral claims of its sister institutions." But, what is perhaps more to the point, Mr. Stillman might easily have informed himself of what my own action in the matter was before rushing into print. My colleague, Professor Tarbell, was in Athens at the time Mr. Stillman wrote his letter, and he could have relieved himself of the necessity of surmise or of forming hasty conclusions by simply inquiring of my colleague what the American School had really done. He would then have found that, two months before his arrival at Athens, I was busily engaged in guarding the interests of pure scientific inquiry and of national courtesy with reference to the claims of the French School, in the very spirit which he now endeavors to contrast with the misguided blindness of our course of action.

I cannot enter upon the question as to what happened before my directorship, which began this last winter; and I must leave it to those who were themselves concerned to show the position of the School in previous years. But what I feel bound to do now is, to give the outline of my own action in the matter. Prior to my arrival here last December, I had not the slightest idea of the possibility of our taking up the excavation of Delphi. I was under the impression that the French School was about to begin. The day after my arrival the Greek papers announced that I had arrived in Athens, "sent by the American Government to enter upon negotiations for the excavation of Delphi." This was the first intimation I received. I was then more credibly informed that the right to excavate Delphi had been offered to the Americans. I thereupon looked into the matter on all sides, and finally came to the conclusion that, whatever our claims might be, we ought to waive them all if there was any possibility of the French School undertaking the excavations within a reasonable period. This attitude was entirely based upon a feeling of scientific and national courtesy. I took definite steps, as a responsible director of the school, to express these views. Some time has elapsed since then, and I have realized, on the one hand, that a large portion of my countrymen in America, who have the interests of science and of this School at heart, are strongly desirous of seeing the excavations at Delphi carried on by the American School; while, on the other hand, I have been informed on the best authority that there is no reasonable prospect of the right of excavating being granted to the French, but that it will be given either to the Americans or to the Greek Archæological Society. From that moment the question of excavating this the most famous of ancient Greek sites lay between the Greek Archæological Society and ourselves, we having a prior claim.

I am now, and shall in the future be, guided by the following considerations:

(1.) Delphi *must* be excavated in the interest of science.

(2.) The excavations must be carried on on a large scale to be of real value. (I may write another letter on this question, in which light may be thrown upon some of Mr. Stillman's remarks concerning the "price," or rather the cost.)

(3.) These excavations ought for many reasons to be undertaken soon. If the excavation of the whole site had been carried into effect twenty years ago, the cost would have been much lower.

(4.) If it were possible for the French School to do the work immediately, they ought to have first claim; if not, the interest of science ought to be paramount, and every true French scholar would be gratified at the idea of this important work being undertaken, and he, with the rest of the civilized world, will be grateful to whosoever brings this about. And if this should be carried into effect by Americans, to them will come the gratitude.

Your obedient servant,

Charles Waldstein.

American School of Classical Studies,
Athens, April 17, 1889.

THE AMHERST POSTMASTERSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your selection of the postmastership at Amherst, Mass., to point a contrast between President Cleveland and President Harrison (p. 335 of your last issue) is so inappropriate that I cannot refrain from stating the actual facts. In reality, the course of Mr. Harrison respecting Mr. Couch and the course of Mr. Cleveland respecting Mr. Couch's predecessor are exactly alike. As a supporter of Mr. Cleveland, I am sorry to have to say this, but the facts are as follows. It should be premised that neither case is a case of removal; in each the term expired and the holder was not reappointed.

Mr. Couch's predecessor had been appointed eight years before, at the instance of President Seelye, then member of Congress. His appointment was, in an unusual degree, in accord with the principles of civil-service reform. A vacancy suddenly occurring, he was appointed not only without his solicitation, but without his knowledge. What you say of Mr. Couch was equally true of him, that "he had been a most faithful public servant, and had conducted the office on the principles of civil-service reform, retaining the assistant of his predecessor." The Springfield *Republican* said that, in the matter of accounting with the Department at Washington, he had stood higher than any other postmaster in Massachusetts, save one. It is equally true that "his reappointment was asked for by nearly the entire faculties of the two colleges and by the leading business men, including," if I remember rightly, "the President of the National Bank and the proprietors of the mills." The signers of his petition were the recipients of nine-tenths of the mail-matter received by the office, and included both Republicans and Democrats of prominence. At that time, as now, the first test of what the new President would do under such circumstances was presented in this case. The politicians of the victorious party insisted upon a change, and Mr. Cleveland appointed Mr. Couch, then Chairman of the Democratic Town Committee. Both Mr. Couch and the new appointee are eminently fit men, and neither one is at all the typical party-worker. The only objection that could be made in either

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case is the radical objection that, in the interest of the service, the best appointment to make in such cases is, almost always, a reappointment.

The non-partisan observer will perceive that the disadvantage of the comparison rests, if anywhere, on President Cleveland. The former case elicited no protest from the *Nation*; if the latter is felt to call for one, it at any rate cannot justly take the form of a contrast.—I am, sir, very respectfully yours,

J. Franklin Jameson.

Providence, April 27, 1889.

[Our files will bear witness to our faithfulness in holding up to public censure the current violations of civil-service reform principles and pledges by Mr. Cleveland's Postmasters-General. They will also show that we conceded the justice of President Cleveland's claim that a wholly partisan civil service should be reduced to one in which the political elements were fairly mixed and equalized, though this necessarily involved the turning out or replacing of some worthy officials. Such an equalization would, of course, have invited the reaction we are now witnessing even if it had not passed the middle line as to numbers, and had, in new appointments, scrupulously adhered to the business (or "public office a public trust") principle, as appears to have been the case with the Amherst postmastership, and not to the spoils principle. Still, without ignoring the real abuses of the late Administration, we hold that the circumstances of the Republicans' return to power were very different from those of Mr. Cleveland's accession as respects the civil service. Moreover, the Republican party asked last November to be reinstated in the Government expressly in order to correct and suppress the abuses perpetrated under Mr. Cleveland; and President Harrison, in his letter of acceptance, solemnly put himself in line on this chapter with the Chicago platform. Both the party and the President must now be tried not by the shortcomings of the Cleveland Administration, but by their own professions.—Ed. Nation.]

PROHIBITION IN IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to correct what I believe to be an erroneous idea in the communication from "A Travelling Man" in your issue of April 25? He says, "The aim of prohibition is, I believe, to keep those who crave liquor from getting it." The gentleman in question may have been led to think that such was the principal aim of prohibition, by the fact that some who advocate prohibitory laws take so narrow a view of this great question. To the majority of prohibitionists, however, this is but a minor point, and becomes insignificant when compared with the far more important purpose of saving from the evils of liquor-drinking our young men and young women, not only of the present, but of all future generations.

There are very few, even of the most radical prohibitionists, who will not readily admit that it is next to impossible to entirely prevent old topers from getting an occasional drink, even though the laws may be most carefully formed and rigidly enforced. This is especially true in localities where foreigners are in the majority. The greatest good which the far-seeing prohibitionist hopes to obtain from prohibitory laws is that, in those places where public opinion is in favor of the law, not only the young may be saved, but many who are already slightly addicted to the use of intoxicants may also be reclaimed; and that in those places where public opinion may not favor prohibition, liquor-selling may be placed under the ban of the law, and thus save that large number of young people whose pride will prevent them from having anything to do with a traffic carried on in open defiance of the law. It is needless to say that there is a large number of such young people, who, under other circumstances, would see no harm in visiting a saloon and drinking there when they see the authorities (a body of men which, in smaller places, often includes the leading church-members and most highly respected citizens) foster and protect the dram-shops.

I may also add that "A Travelling Man" rather overreaches himself when he says: "I have known men to drive forty miles to town for a drink." Any one who is acquainted with the State of Iowa knows very well that in no part of the State can one drive forty miles without passing a large number of villages or small towns. Knowing that in evading the law the wiles of the toper are legion, and knowing also that if there is any liquor to be had he is sure to know about it, it is certainly pretty good evidence that there are parts of the State of Iowa (that included within a radius of forty miles, or an area larger than eight average counties) where prohibition is a *complete* success.

Having lived in Iowa over twenty years, and knowing something of the working of the prohibition law, I think I am justified in saying that there are many other parts of the State where the same condition prevails; in other words, that the prohibition law in Iowa is, except possibly in a few river towns, as well enforced as any other law in the State.

Yours truly, Selby A. Moran.

Ann Arbor, Mich., April 29, 1889.

HIGH LICENSE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being a constant reader of the *Nation*, I am annoyed with your treatment of the liquor question, as giving the impression of having made up your mind first and seeking evidence afterwards, in true theological style. Last year's restriction of license was carried so far that back-door drinking was common (there being three drinking-places without license near our works), patent-stopper bottles for bottling at home became a prominent feature at grocery stores, and many of the saloons were enlarged and overcrowded—some of the proprietors making enormous profits out of their monopoly. This year promises to be much worse; the courts apparently being anxious to show the public the danger of giving one man so much power as is given by the Brooks Law.

In the *Nation* of April 25 you say, "The single fact that there are, in a city like Pittsburgh, eleven wards almost entirely without a liquor saloon, is itself an unanswerable argument in favor of the high-license principle as an effective agency for restricting the liquor traffic." High license may be good, but it seems to me that the above is almost self-evident proof that it has been carried to an absurd extreme. With tariff, oleo., liquor, dressed-beef, prison-labor, etc., agitations in the air, there is danger of the law-breakers becoming the majority, and therefore more respected than the law-makers. I am sorry to see the *Nation* in such unsuitable company.

Respectfully yours, W. Walker.

Pittsburgh, Pa., April 29, 1889.

[We do not seek evidence "afterwards," but all the time, and we are obliged to our correspondent for what he offers. We are all liable to err in thinking that the results of *any* system of restricting the liquor traffic will be immediately demonstrable; but prohibitionist and high-license advocates ought to be agreed in accepting the diminution of saloons—*i. e.*, of the frequency of temptation—as a gain to the community. Either policy tends more or less to promote illicit selling and drinking.—Ed. Nation.]

THE VOTE IN SALEM, MASS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call your attention to an error in your issue of April 25. In speaking of the vote in this State on the prohibitory amendment, you say: "Salem is the one place of considerable size which went that way [*i. e.*, for the amendment] with a sweep by the remarkable vote of 2,009 to 879." Now, while you have given the exact figures, you have just reversed them, the actual vote being 879 *for* the amendment and 2,009 *against* it. Your showing would speak but poorly for the common sense of the people of Salem.—Yours very truly,

H. P. Peirson.

Salem, Mass., April 27, 1889.

THE RHINES VOTE-RECORDING MACHINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 25th inst., your correspondent "J. H. W." (whose position as an authority on ballot reform in this country is well known to all those familiar with the literature of the subject) has made very just and forcible objections to the Rhines machine as at present constructed; but it occurs to me that other objections may also be made.

The Constitution of almost every State requires elections to be by ballot. According to the dictionaries, this word may mean not only a piece of paper, but (as originally) a little ball, or anything else used for casting a vote secretly; and we may fairly interpret the constitution as not confining the citizens to the use of paper ballots. Unquestionably, however, when these constitutions were adopted, it was meant that the ballots, of whatever material or construction, should be cast separately by each voter, or by an election officer for him, into a box; and a machine by which each voter presses certain buttons, and by means of unseen machinery records his choice in the form of a particular number in a particular column on a long strip of paper, is certainly not within the letter of these constitutions. Whether it be within their spirit, will be an open question till it is settled by some court of last resort, and in the meantime it is open to very grave doubt. In Pennsylvania, where the Constitution is peculiarly explicit in regard to identifying the ballots by numbers, and even, oddly enough, by an endorsement of any voter's name who may wish it, a constitutional amendment would undoubtedly first be required.

There is no provision in the Rhines machine for voting for any one not nominated, nor do I see how such a machine can possibly provide for this, as has been done, I believe, in all the ballot-reform bills introduced in the various

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legislatures, by directing a sufficient number of blank spaces to be left on the ballot, so that names can be inserted. It may be argued that the right of voting for any one not nominated is of little value; but as our State constitutions stand at present, every voter has a right to vote for whom he pleases, and a law compelling him to vote only for candidates who have been nominated in a certain manner, and a certain length of time before the election, would probably be unconstitutional. Besides, in the case of ward or township officers, and particularly in the case of division election officers, the right to combine in an independent movement after the time for nominations has passed may be a very valuable one.

The possibility of the machine getting out of order during an election, as well as of its being secretly arranged beforehand by the officers in charge so as to produce fraudulent results, suggest objections that may perhaps have some foundation. At the same time, the machine is a most ingenious one, and if it should really be possible to secure a free and pure ballot by such a contrivance as this, American inventiveness will have given the world the greatest of many gifts. CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, April 27, 1889.

THE HIGHER LAW OF LEGISLATURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am aware of the impropriety of attempting to discuss a grave constitutional question within the narrow limits allowed an occasional correspondent. It was expressly conceded in my former letter that many excellent authorities might be found for the conclusion announced by Prof. Bryce. To institute a comparison between the conflicting cases was not my purpose. I desired to assert, and to emphasize by such citations as I found at hand, the fact that a conflict exists, and that, in my humble opinion, the prevailing doctrine is opposed to the conclusion of Prof. Bryce.

It must be confessed that the English Parliament is, at present, more apt to respect the rights of an individual than an American State legislature. This superior consideration for private right is due, however, not to the compelling authority of Magna Charta and the Petition of Right, nor to any regard for what is called the English Constitution, but to the superior honesty, ability, and fairness of the members of Parliament. Both of the famous statutes referred to were directed against the King and the Executive. Like other laws of Parliament, they may be repealed or disregarded by Parliament. The memorable judgment of Lord Coke in Dr. Bonham's case—"Sometimes the common law will control acts of Parliament, and adjudge them to be void; for when an act is against common right and reason, or impossible to be performed, the common law will control it and adjudge it to be void"—declared rather a rule for the construction of statutes than a principle for their control. While this judgment received the sanction of two of his successors, it has repeatedly been repudiated, and can no longer be regarded as the "law of the land." It must also be remembered that Sir Thomas More was beheaded because he affirmed in a private conversation that there were things which no Parliament could do: "For example, no Parliament could make a law that God should not be God; no more could it make the King the supreme head of the Church." Moreover, the rolls of Parliament are full of laws which violate what every American—yes, and Englishman—would hold to be self-evident principles of right and justice. Passing over the laws adopted in times of religious or political excitement, when men's minds were so disturbed as to be incapable of justice, the oppressive power of Parliament may be illustrated by the infamous law adopted in the time of Elizabeth for the regulation of labor (5 Eliz., chap. 4). This provided that every person under the age of thirty years, not having forty shillings a year, should be compellable to serve as a yearly servant in the craft in which he was brought up; that all persons between fifteen and sixty years, not otherwise employed, should be compellable to serve in husbandry; that a servant unlawfully quitting his employment should be imprisoned; that servants should not leave the city or parish in which they were employed, without a testimonial, under penalty of imprisonment; that a master taking a servant without a testimonial should be fined.

This law also established an assize composed of the county justices, with power to define the hours of work which should constitute a day's labor, and fix the rate of wages to be paid; and, with a view to enforcing the observance of the schedule adopted, provided that any master who paid more than the prescribed wages should be fined and imprisoned, and that if workmen combined to raise wages, they might be hung.

When it is remembered that the average rate of wages established by these assizes was about ten cents a day, and that universal misery was the result, one may well question the efficacy of that spirit of the common law to which Lord Coke appealed. By what express limitation would such a law be declared unconstitutional in America? (See Rogers's 'History of Wages.')

This law was in force at the time of the Declaration of Independence, at the time when Lord Thurlow declared an attack on the charter of the East India Company to be an "atrocious violation of private right, which cut every Englishman to the bone," and Mr. Burke, in the fervor of his magnificent oratory, pronounced the rights of man to be indeed sacred things, and declared that "A formal recognition by the sovereign power of an original right in the subject cannot be subverted but by uprooting the holding, radical principle of government and even society itself."

It is hardly necessary to adduce other proofs that even a parliament of Englishmen, however thoroughly imbued with the sentiment of justice, is not to be trusted with the liberties of the people. A hundred instances of wrong will recur to every reader of history. Ireland's discontent is the heritage of a people for long years subjected to every form of outrageous oppression which the ingenuity of selfishness could devise. The Americans who made this Commonwealth remembered these things. To guard against them, they established constitutions wherein were recited the purposes for which governments are established, chief among which was the security of life, liberty, property, and the pursuit of happiness. These instruments declared also the scope and limitations of the various departments of government, and confided to the courts the duty and right of interpretation. To deny to the courts the power to avoid a law which manifestly and flagrantly disregards the purposes for which a constitution is adopted, while conceding to them the right to enforce the limitations expressive of, and necessarily incompletely expressive of, those purposes, is palpable, monstrous folly. Danger to the individual cannot be involved in this doctrine. The courts may restrain, they cannot initiate oppression.

In reply to one of my critics, I submit the following cases in which laws have been actually annulled by the courts, although not forbidden by the express provisions of any constitution. They illustrate the necessity as well as the reasonableness of the doctrine under consideration.

A law imposing a tax for a private purpose (25 Iowa 547, 20 Mich. 473, 103 Mass. 102, 60 Maine 128).

A law imposing a debt on a municipality or person which it or he had not contracted (16 Mass. 83, 51 Ill. 33, 51 Pa. St. 22).

A law forbidding a man to sell his property lawfully acquired (13 N. Y. 381).

A law releasing a debtor from the effect of a judgment (3 Vt. 179-360).

A law suspending the statute of limitation in favor of a particular claim (11 Mass. 398).

A law requiring a person in the possession and enjoyment of property to begin a suit to establish his title (11 Minn. 499-866).

A law appointing an agent for a municipality, without its consent, with power to buy and sell on its account (31 Vt. 233).

A law authorizing a personal judgment against a non-resident without personal service (95 U. S. 714).

A law requiring the owner of realty to enjoin a person proposing to do work on his property, and that otherwise the fact that the work was done should be conclusive evidence that it was done with the owner's consent (1 Lawyer's Reps. 777).

A law providing that a person having color of title to land, whether in possession or not, who paid taxes for a series of years, should have a legal and good title (18 Ill. 506).

A law divorcing a husband and wife, and granting alimony to the latter (4 Har. and McH. 477).

Yours truly, I. H. LIONBERGER.

ST. LOUIS, April 29, 1889.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have watched with interest and concern the discussion in the last few numbers of your paper on the subject of "Negro Convicts in South Carolina," and am moved to this obtrusion by the conviction that I can remove some of the misapprehensions under which you are laboring.

In limine, let me say that in your editorial of the 25th inst. you overlook entirely the suggestion made by Prof. Alexander, that "the purpose of the [Governor's] Statement is to inform the public as to whom he has pardoned, and in the briefest possible way of the ground of his action. He naturally mentions only the mitigating circumstances. The impression, therefore, is apt to be made that these persons were unjustly punished in the first instance. But if one will only take the trouble to investigate, he will find that there is quite another side to the picture than that presented in petitions." And you proceed to produce other instances, and draw other inferences from the bare statements accompanying the Governor's report, and without any other knowledge of, or, so far as appears, any inquiry into, the facts of the case. With this I should have little concern, except that you make your deductions the premises on which you affirm "that South Carolina juries convict negroes where legal proof of guilt is confessedly wanting, and judges and Governor support them in such disregard of all rules of law"; and again: "Public sentiment demands that a negro who has the misfortune to be suspected of crime shall

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be sent up until the suspicion is forgotten, and somebody asks the Governor to let him out."

The Q. E. D. of your articles seems to be that the law is not administered fairly, and is used for the oppression of a class and a curtailment of its liberties. This is a grave charge to bring against any community, and when it can be refuted by a simple statement of facts, I feel it my duty to present them to you, and, through your widespread and influential paper, to lay them before the public.

It is, of course, well known to you that the laws of this State make no discrimination for or against the colored citizen; and I confess that, knowing the negro as I do, I sincerely regret that such discriminations cannot be made. The difference of moral stature is such as to make it hard indeed to punish him, by a procrustean code, with the same severity as the white man for certain crimes, of which, without doubt, he has not the same moral perception—but this merely in passing. It is in reference to the administration rather than the enactment of our laws that I am able to speak from experience, having been for nearly thirteen years the prosecuting attorney of a large circuit in the State, and one containing a great majority of colored citizens. And I state generally that, during these years of service, I do not recall a single instance wherein race prejudice has been to any degree a factor in the conviction of a negro. We are not unlike other people, and American people, and prejudices do exist, especially with the illiterate and uninformed; but that it impresses itself on the administration of justice in the manner you imagine, cannot be substantiated. Juries are proverbially uncertain, and justice must sometimes miscarry; and while I have known instances in which white men have been acquitted for crimes against negroes, who, in my judgment, should have been convicted, yet the same failure of justice occurs in cases wherein the offence occurs between persons of the same race, and history shows that it is more or less prevalent all over the civilized world. The proposition which I dispute here is, that, under the administration of our laws, negroes are convicted because they are negroes, and without the same regard to the weight of the evidence as is exercised in regard to white men.

It would take some time, but I fancy little difficulty, to get the full statement of each case you cite, and show that there were facts, and controlling facts, in each case which do not enter into your reasoning; but that has been already pointed out by Prof. Alexander. I will only advert to one of them, which happens to have come under my especial observation. I refer to the case of Marcus Horlbeck, cited in your article of the 25th inst. Your criticism of that case is:

> "The legal enormity of this case can hardly be described. A jury, sworn to try the prisoner according to the law and the evidence, deliberately plots to secure the imprisonment for life of a man of whose guilt they have grave doubts; and Judge Hudson lends himself to this scheme . . . . and the Governor complies. . . . It is an elementary principle of the criminal law, which it is inconceivable that the judge did not impose upon the jury, that unless the jurors are convinced beyond a reasonable doubt of the guilt of the prisoner, a verdict of acquittal must be rendered; and above all, in a capital case, the prisoner is entitled to the benefit of every reasonable doubt."

When this case occurred, our citizens were startled by its horrible and disgusting details. The prisoner was a well-known pimp in the lowest slums of iniquity in the city—a locality inhabited almost entirely by women of the most degraded character and most revolting habits of life. The deceased, who was a stranger here and a cripple, having but one arm, was decoyed to an upper room, approached by a narrow and crooked stairway, while in an advanced stage of intoxication. On leaving this den and on the stairs he was struck on the head from behind by the prisoner, and felled to the bottom of the steps. This blow caused his almost instant death; and this for the purpose of robbing him of the contents of his purse. These facts were sworn to by more than one eye-witness. If these facts were sworn to by unimpeachable witnesses, there is no jury in Christendom, who could have found any verdict but "Guilty," who would not be justly chargeable with non-observance of their oaths. But in this case the eye-witnesses were necessarily all men and women of the basest sort, all denizens or habitués of the slums. This condition of the evidence is what caused the "doubts" in the minds of some few of the jury, and hence the compromise verdict. The facts as above given were sworn to directly and positively by the witnesses. I venture to say that there was no single juror who did not feel morally certain that the defendant was guilty, but their doubts arose from hesitation to take human life on the oaths of such witnesses.

Now, you must admit that it would be a most dangerous rule of evidence that witnesses not otherwise impeached are not to be believed in courts of justice simply because they are engaged in disreputable occupations and lead disreputable lives, especially when, as in this case, they are not contradicted by the circumstances of the case. Were such a rule adopted, crime would go unpunished directly in proportion to the degraded character and associations of the parties thereto. How could it be possible to produce an eye-witness of high personal probity and character to the case in point?

You must bear in mind what, from your papers, seems not to have been as yet called to your attention, that in this State there are no degrees of murder, as in many other States; and for a man convicted of that crime there is but one punishment, viz., death; so that, if a jury are convinced, beyond a reasonable doubt, that a defendant is guilty, but believes that there are extenuating circumstances, it has become the unwritten law that they add to their verdict a recommendation to mercy, which almost invariably works a commutation of sentence. This recommendation is also added in cases, like the one under discussion, when, while there is no possible ground of extenuation if the charge be true, yet there is such slight doubt of the truth of the facts (not amounting to reasonable doubts as prescribed by law) as causes the jury, or some of them, to hesitate to give their entire assent to the execution of the supreme penalty of the law. And I defy any community to prove that compromise verdicts of this kind do not occur frequently in their midst.

Under these circumstances the verdict in this case was returned, and the Governor, following the almost unvarying precedent, commuted the sentence as reported. On this jury were two colored men, and the opportunity was afforded the prisoner of having more had he so desired.

Your allusion to the duty of a judge to charge the jury to resolve doubts in favor of the prisoner is, again, based upon a misapprehension. In point of fact, conviction is rendered difficult by the pointed and emphatic manner in which this injunction is impressed upon the juror, as the reading of any charge will show. In this very case his Honor impressed this duty upon the jury.

In addition to refuting particular cases which may be advanced, many others might be adduced going to substantiate the proposition for which I am contending. One case, State vs. Marshall Amaker, occurred in Orangeburg County in 1887, in which a jury of twelve white men convicted a white man charged with the murder of a negro. And, to the credit of the colored men of Berkeley County, a negro who was charged with killing a white man (I refer to the case of State vs. Nimmons) was tried by a jury consisting of one white and eleven colored men, and they brought in a unanimous verdict of guilty on the evidence.

Within the last few weeks the Governor has made use of his executive power for an act of clemency which should entirely exonerate him from your charge of conniving at race oppression. Two negroes were convicted of murder; they had "lynched" a white man who, they were informed, had criminally assaulted a colored girl. His Excellency did not *commute* their punishment, but gave them full and free pardon, and on the ground that they were negroes. I venture to say that no white man convicted of applying lynch law in this State will ever be treated with the same clemency.

Again, in a recent case here, two negroes, Fraser and Criss, were tried and convicted of murder, under the following circumstances: They went together into the grocery shop of a respectable old German one Saturday night. While Criss engaged the attention of the proprietor in the back part of the store, Fraser seized the money box. He was detected by the old man and his daughter, who happened to come in at that moment, whereupon Fraser fired first at the woman, without effect, and then fired on the man, killing him in two shots. They then retreated with their plunder. They were both arrested within a few hours while making their way from the city. Each one was taken with a pistol on him and money answering the description of that stolen (a preponderance of small change, one-cent pieces, etc., as is commonly taken in on Saturday nights by shops of that class). They both confessed the facts substantially as above, but Criss claimed that while he did enter into the conspiracy to rob, he had not conspired to kill. He further claimed, but failed to adduce any evidence, that he had purchased the pistol found upon him after the killing. The judge charged the jury that there must be something more than the fact of Criss's presence to make him guilty of the murder; that he must at least have known that Fraser was armed and would have taken life, if necessary in the accomplishment of their joint purpose. The jury found both guilty and they were sentenced to be executed; but the Governor commuted Criss's sentence to imprisonment for life, and Fraser, a few days since, alone suffered the extreme penalty of the law. Instances like these indicate that Governor Richardson's tendency is to be lenient to a race whose moral and intellectual nature and development are inferior to those of the white man.

I admit that white men are slow to convict a white man charged with killing a negro, but it is sometimes done, as shown by the case of Marshall Amaker above noticed; but, so far as the charge of oppression of the negro by hasty and improper convictions is concerned, my experience is that the white men of South Carolina, as jurymen and as officers administering the law, are absolutely and entirely free from such aspersion. On the contrary, nine negroes out of ten who are tried for the graver offences themselves exclude their own color from the jury-box, and prefer to leave their fate in the hands of their white fellow-citizens.

Respectfully, W. St. Julien Jervey.

Charleston, S. C., April 27, 1889.

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[The additional facts relating to Marcus Horlbeck, though interesting as giving a full statement of the case, do not meet the point of our criticism. The law knows no such verdict as that of Probably Guilty, which was rendered in this case. The jury have said, in effect, that whether the prisoner was guilty or not they did not know, as the witnesses were unworthy of belief; but as he seemed to be a disreputable fellow, it would be well to shut him up. Whether the same decision would have been reached in the case of a white man cannot be told, but the reports we have been quoting from do not show any such cases.—Ed. Nation.]

"ANTIGONE" AT SWARTHMORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps you may feel willing to chronicle, in the interest of classical scholarship, the performance recently, at Swarthmore College, of the "Antigone" of Sophocles in the original Greek. It was presented by young women, members of the "Somerville Literary Society," at their annual reunion, and was considered such a success that it was repeated later before the entire college and a number of invited guests. The costumes worn were from classic models, and those of the leading performers were of great beauty. The actors delivered their lines with great force of expression, and the choruses were sung to music selected for the occasion. The entire performance was characterized by grace, dignity, and beauty, and was a delight both to the eye and ear. While listening to the melodious language and gazing at the succession of beautiful groupings presented during the several scenes of the play, one could not but be impressed with the perennial beauty of Greek ideas and their dominant influence in the realm of the æsthetic. If we could have more work of this sort done at our colleges, would it not be of service, not merely in stimulating their students in their Greek, but in interesting those outside of academic circles, many of whom are inclined to look with disfavor upon the study?

W. H. Appleton.

Swarthmore College, May 3, 1889.

A HARD CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Has the wretched contributor no rights that magazine adventurers are bound by law to respect? Is there no redress for wrongs done the wretched contributor?

A magazine has lately "failed" in New York. It "failed" owing its wretched contributors for the three last months of its existence. Not only that, but it failed with quantities of MS. on hand, examined and unexamined. These MSS. are heaven only knows where, for the "management" utterly ignores all letters concerning them and requests for their return. Can nothing be done under such circumstances besides holding such "management" up to the contempt of all honorable men?

A year and more ago an article was published in said magazine with illustrations. The article cost its writer a journey, hotel bill, and two days of steady work. The water-color sketches were from nature, by an artist of some repute, and cost the writer of the article ten dollars apiece, being four in number. When the article was published, the artist's name was found to be carefully erased from the drawings and that of one of the magazine's job-workers inserted in its place. For the manuscript and sketches the contributor received a check, three months after publication, for *fifteen dollars!* C. H. W.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press or in preparation 'The Garden's Story; or, Pleasures and Trials of an Amateur Gardener,' by George H. Ellwanger; and 'Days out of Doors,' by Dr. Charles C. Abbott. They have just issued a "centennial inauguration edition" of their useful '*Dictionary* of New York and Its Vicinity,' the eleventh revision, in which even a superficial glance discovers a close bringing down to date.

Chas. Scribner's Sons will soon publish the second volume of Prof. Chas. W. Shields's 'Philosophia Ultima'; and 'Progress of Religious Freedom as Shown in the History of the Toleration Acts,' by the Rev. Dr. Philip Schaff.

Ginn & Co., Boston, will add to their "Library of Anglo-Saxon Poetry" Cynewulf's 'Elene,' edited by Prof. Chas. W. Kent of the University of Tennessee.

John C. Nimmo, London, is bringing out in four volumes a second edition of S. Laing's translation of the 'Heimskringla,' revised and annotated by Prof. Rasmus B. Anderson, lately United States Minister at Copenhagen. *Only 520 copies are printed, and these from type.*

"Nineteenth edition" is stamped on the titlepage of a new issue of the late William A. Wheeler's 'Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction,' etc., a reader's hand-book which first appeared in 1865 and was at once welcomed (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Charles G. Wheeler, a nephew of the compiler, has now added an appendix, which not merely is measurably a continuation to date, but repairs omissions in the body of the work, as appears from such entries as Abou ben Adhem, Baalam's Ass, Banker Poet, Black-eyed Susan, Jim Crow, Sword of Damocles, Gordian Knot, Cranes of Ibycus, Jewels of Cornelia, Lever of Archimedes, Tom Brown, Handy Andy, Midshipman Easy, Eva (in 'Uncle Tom'), etc. All George Eliot's prominent characters and some of Dickens's are cared for; Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde and Robert Elsmere are admitted, while "She" is ignored. In American fiction, Elsie Venner keeps company with Daisy Miller, but we have looked in vain for Silas Lapham or any character of Howells's, or for Aldrich's Marjorie Daw. Uncle Remus is in his place. Among the new pseudonyms are the Autocrat, Josh Billings, Charles Egbert Craddock, Mark Twain, and P. V. Nasby. Political terms, like Bloody Shirt and Mugwump, are recorded. Much might be said concerning omissions, as in the case of Dumas and Victor Hugo, both neglected by the elder Wheeler; and Turgeneff and Tolstoi, unknown to the younger, who misses Anna Karénina along with Bazaroff. The index to the real names of pseudonymous characters has not been enlarged to take in the appendix, as it should have been. On the whole, the new portion, though useful as far as it goes, can hardly be called a first-rate performance.

T. A. Archer's 'Crusade of Richard I.,' in the admirable series called "English History from Contemporary Writers" (Putnams), for which no words of commendation are required from us, must be one of the most popular. Its execution is certainly all that could be desired. It could not have been difficult to make interesting selections to illustrate an event so conspicuous and romantic as the Third Crusade; but all the accessories—notes, tables, bibliography, illustrations, and historical introduction—are of the best. Every reader of Scott's 'Talisman' ought to read these selections. He will find, we think, that, whatever may be the errors of the novelist in detail, the spirit of the times is well maintained.

The Tenth Census is at last completed by the publication of two volumes, xxi and xxii, of no little interest in very different ways—the first dealing with the Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes; the second with Power and Machinery employed in Manufactures, and the Ice Industry. Mr. Frederick H. Wines is the competent special agent responsible for the social statistics of vol. xxi. In vol. xxii, Prof. Wm. P. Trowbridge has looked after power and machinery, and Mr. Henry Hall after the ice business—a relatively short chapter; both topics are illustrated. We reproach ourselves with not having acknowledged sooner the appearance also of vol. xvii, the second on Water-Power, by Mr. James L. Greenleaf; and of vol. xix, the second of Col. Geo. E. Waring, Jr.'s report on the Social Statistics of Cities, comprehending the Southern and the Western States. In both these instances, also, illustrations abound.

Speaking of cities, we may here call attention to the document emanating from the State Board of Health on the 'Potable Water Supply of the City of New York.' Text and maps are supplemented by a large series of drawings from photographs indicating the sources of pollution on the borders of the tributary watercourses. The demonstration is complete.

The picturesque and architectural aspect of this metropolis is well caught in a volume of albertype views styled, somewhat oddly, 'Select New York' (Adolph Wittemann, 58 Reade Street). As in the case of smaller albums from the same publisher which we lately noticed, these plates are more admirable in the choice of subjects and point of view than in the mechanical execution. They are "instantaneous," and may possibly have undergone enlargement.

The *Technology Architectural Review* closes its first volume with No. 8, in which the several *projets* illustrated by the drawings are an Italian villa, a reformatory prison, an art-club building, and a Doric doorway—this last, one of Mr. Emmanuel Brune's exceptionally able renderings. Hereafter the letterpress will take on a greater importance, including letters from travellers in foreign parts, series of original articles, translations from the French, etc. The Rotch Trustees will make the *Review* the medium of publishing the *envois* of the *pensionnaires* of its travelling scholarship. The success of this periodical has been most creditable and gratifying, and, in connection with that sterling weekly the *American Architect*, the *Review* fixes the reputation of Boston as the seat of the profession on the side of training, learning, literary expression, and *esprit de corps*.

The singular *Magazine of Poetry*, "a quarterly *review*," as it purports to be, has reached a second number (Buffalo: Chas. Wells Moulton). It tickles the love of notoriety of all the poetasters, by giving respectful or laudatory biographical accounts of them, printing gems from their verse, and engraving their likenesses. They vary in degrees of good and bad, and what the total effect on the taste of subscribers must be we will not undertake to say.

A publication remote of kin to the foregoing comes to us from the other side of the Atlantic—*Men and Women of the Day*, "a pic-

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ture-gallery of contemporary portraiture" (London: R. Bentley & Son). But the aim and the execution are higher. In the April number, Mr. J. L. Toole, the famous comedian, Miss Mary Moore, one of the younger actresses, and Sir Edward Watkin, M. P., the railway magnate, are severally portrayed in permanent photography on a large scale, with readable sketches of their lives. The fifteen earlier issues have embraced Cardinal Newman, Gladstone, Hartington, John Morley, Lubbock, Tennyson, Browning, Chamberlain, Spencer, Hallé, Ellen Terry, the Kendals, Bright, Ruskin, Mme. Schumann, etc., etc.—a series of no mean value for time present and to come.

The fourth number of the *Green Bag* (Boston: Chas. C. Soule) has an article on the Columbia Law School with many portraits, and a sketch of the late Sidney Bartlett, the Nestor of the American bar, together with his portrait. Some of the general statements as to Mr. Bartlett's age, undiminished intellect, and uninterrupted practice of his profession are too sweeping, and overlook the closest and nearest parallel in the person of the late Samuel E. Sewall of Boston.

The prospectus of the *Bibliotheca Platonica* is before us; its chief aim is announced to be "the critical and philosophical examination and interpretation of the writings of Plato, Aristotle, and the neo-Platonists." The editor-publisher will be Thos. M. Johnson of Osceola, St. Clair Co., Missouri. "Papers may be written either in English or Latin."

Trübner's Record, entering with No. 243 on a third series, proposes to expand its original design as a journal devoted to the literature of the East, by "assigning ample space to literary and scientific articles on subjects within its scope," under the editorial direction of Dr. Rost of the India Office. Reviews will be more extensive, and there will be periodic statements of the advance made in the various fields of Oriental research. Provisionally, six numbers will be issued yearly, till a monthly issue is warranted. In the present number we remark Prof. Charles Lanman's reception by the Bombay branch of the Royal Asiatic Society on January 16, he being the first of American Orientalists to visit the Society; a review of Sir Monier Monier-Williams's recent work on Buddhism; E. Forchhammer's description of the remains of Pagan in Ava, and other interesting matter.

At the recent excavations at Platæa in Greece, under the auspices of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, a large fragment of a Latin inscription was found. Prof. Tarbell, the Annual Director of the School, finds that this contains part of the famous Edict of Diocletian *de pretiis rerum venalium*. The two copies of this preamble already known are imperfect, and the new-found inscription will fill some of the gaps. All the fragments of Diocletian's Edict hitherto found in Greece have been in Greek.

— The *Atlantic* for May is most noticeable for its leading article, the beginning of Mr. Bynner's novel of Knickerbocker life, which, from its first pages, shows a fresh and truly original strain, and has a vigor and attractiveness that must win readers, apart from its local and antiquarian interest. The staying power of his Knickerbocker dialect, however, has certainly yet to be tested, for it labors heavily under its uncouthness. The solid paper, and a very excellent one, is Mr. Clark's temperate and able discussion of the uses and limits of temperance legislation. It comes a little late into the arena of practical politics, but it may serve as a storehouse of reasons after the fact to those who defeated the amendment in Massachusetts, and represents probably with considerable fulness the sound sense of the real situation, and the practical counsels which guided the thinking voters in the recent contest. It is not local in its interest, nevertheless, and may be recommended to friends of temperance legislation in every State as a careful brief summary of opinion and suggestion upon the general topic of the reform. John Fiske writes with even more than his usual brilliancy and force of the battles of Brandywine and Germantown, and of the fate of Burgoyne. A very charming piece of sentimental travel, apropos of Goethe and Frederika, is contributed by Bliss Perry, who makes Sesenheim attractive for pilgrims. Prof. Royce begins a series of reflections upon the state of society and its development in Australasia, and in the first paper brings out the characteristic difference between the State-growth in Australia and this country; the main trait being the dependence of the colonies on Government and its probable more socialistic results.

— *Harper's* opens with a new chapter of Russian life, which is a pleasing change from our usual diet, introducing its readers to the court festivities at the Winter Palace, the salons, and clubs of the city of the Neva, and the amusements of society generally on its quays and in its environs. The sketch is admirably proportioned, and seems extraordinarily true to the facts of human nature that lie behind the trappings and the circumstances. The Russian temperament itself, as one gets at it in the best imaginative work of Russian literature, is presented with a penetration and almost an artistic feeling that quite differentiate this article from the class of superficial or perfunctory subjects in which expectation would place it, and make it really luminous with knowledge. The Tartar base in this world, the sensuousness of it on the physical side, the militarism of it on the social side, the contrast of its tropical and warmly colored interior with its frozen environment, are brought out not by emphasis and forethought, but as naturally as in a photograph, and the whole effect hangs together like life. In the remainder of the number, perhaps the most interesting contribution is Mr. Blowitz's tale of how he got the text of the Berlin Treaty for the London *Times*, in which his unconscious portrait of himself is not the least entertaining matter. Mr. Brander Matthews's survey of the present state of play-writing exhibits thorough acquaintance with a subject somewhat difficult to handle; and since his favorable augury for the future of the drama is based upon such excellent observation, we may take more comfort of it than we usually do in such prophecy. Mr. Stedman told us some time ago that we were to have dramatic literature in America next, but it has not yet put in an appearance. The paper on the Royal Academy has several good portraits, and in the text there is interesting artistic reminiscence.

— *Scribner's*, in the first of its sporting articles, delights the eye with a profusion of softly-toned or picturesque illustrations of wild water and headland, with a fish or two for spoil; but the descriptive paper suggests a time and place when one is glad to read what he can get, and has plenty of leisure to devour his findings. Mr. Eugene Schuyler contributes the inevitable Russian topic, dealing with Tolstoi twenty years ago, at which time the writer visited him upon his estates. The prefatory part, describing the home and manners of Prince Odóiefsky and Princess Olga, being more fresh and showing a phase of Russian civilization of which we hear too little in proportion to the rest of what we learn of the country, is more entertaining. Of Tolstoi there is nothing specially new in this new glimpse, but doubtless in the succeeding paper his personality will be more felt. It is worth noting that Mr. Schuyler corrects the current impression that the series called 'Childhood, Boyhood, and Youth' is autobiographical; he says that Tolstoi denied that there was "the slightest" vein of that interest in those sketches. The Freight Department, in the railroad series, is despatched in the thorough and solid treatment which has characterized this entire block of articles; and the subject of Photography is written of by Prof. Trowbridge, in not too technical a way, and with the aid of several striking illustrations, especially of surf and fire. Mr. Mabie's critical summary of the literary form of fiction is an unusual example of how tightly a man may bind himself to the wheel of the Juggernaut of the hour, from which he is very likely to escape only with broken bones. The interesting final articles, which are one of the most attractive features of the magazine, are represented by a paper of some brief reflections by Prof. Norton upon the lack of old homes in America, a characteristic of the country which he treats of almost entirely on the social side; but it is to be remarked that if there are necessarily few old homes among us, the tradition of New England breeding has not been broken to anything like the extent which might be inferred: the new hearths are kindled from old fire.

— The *Century* devotes much space to the Samoan question. Mr. Whitaker describes the islands of the Navigators' group and the customs of the natives, and, by the assistance of several illustrations, succeeds in giving ample information upon both branches of his subject. The people are represented as a faithful, simple, and gentle race, of whom the deposed king, Malietoa, is a more developed type. Mr. Bates, in his article, is appreciative of the good qualities of the natives, and more particularly of their chief, to the point of enthusiasm; he was especially struck by the warrior type, such as Asi and Seumana, of the latter of whom he says that, "taking in the whole range of physical, mental, and moral attributes," he seemed "a man of as fine nature as can be produced anywhere." Malieota is represented as an entirely unselfish man, who, through Christian influences, is completely absorbed in the welfare of his people, and is only to be reproached, if at all, for the too great willingness he showed to abandon his own kingship among them, in the hope that they would be relieved from injury and suffering and prosper better under a civilized protectorate. The sketches of the character and disposition of these native chiefs, however they may be flattered by consideration and sympathy in the mind of the writer, are useful and instructive; the mere fact that the Samoans are capable of exciting such interest and sympathy speaks well for them, and in their history they have not evinced the savage nature. A third article contains some documents relating to our introduction to the islands in 1875. The three together make a kind of brochure of the main points at stake in the Conference now in session. The other noticeable contribution is one of reminiscences about Millet, in which we come very close to the home life, the habits, and the temperament of the artist, in himself one of the most attractive modern figures in art; and the sketches, here reproduced, of his drawings for his children, are a delightful bit of autobiography.

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—It is with regret that we announce the decease, on April 19, of our able and esteemed English correspondent, Colonel Robert Durie Osborn. Col. Osborn, an officer of the Eleventh Bengal Cavalry, after being in the thick of the Indian Mutiny of 1857, retired from active service several years ago on the pension of his rank, and returned to England. A fluent, graceful, well-informed, and, for the most part, foresightful writer, and withal indefatigable, he was long a valued and copious contributor to periodical and journalistic literature in India and in England, as also, to some extent, in this country, as the *North American Review* and our own columns bear witness. He was, besides, the author of 'Islam under the Arabs' and of 'Islam under the Khalifs of Baghdad,' two volumes alike eminently readable and of sterling merit, which we reviewed in 1878. His death was at once sudden and peculiar. Lawn tennis, at which he was a practical adept, and on which he published an authoritative manual, was his favorite outdoor recreation. As a member of the Hyde Park Lawn Tennis Club, he was engaged in playing a match with Mr. James E. Renshaw, the champion tennis-player of all England, when he staggered, fell, and expired without speaking in the course of five minutes; the cause of his death being syncope, induced by undue exertion combined with the great heat of the day. His age was fifty-three. He is survived by a wife and two daughters.

RECENT ENGLISH POETRY.

THERE is something of interest in comparing even the second-class poetry of two kindred nations—England and America, for instance—as it reveals itself by monthly instalments to the long-suffering critic. In the English volumes there is apt to be more of smoothness, or, rather, when this quality is wanting, it is more generally the result of waywardness, not of ignorance. There is generally more of classical allusion—more that is religious, or at least churchly—and more that is the fruit of foreign travel, this last often redeeming a volume otherwise flat or tedious. On the other hand, the American book is apt to have a little more freshness of impulse and motive, a more salient personality, more that speaks of new scenes and fresh life—and, on the whole, when the balance is struck, more of vitality. The American harvest, however, shows greater extremes of crudeness, and consequently of affectation, than the English; and we have before pointed out that, the more inexperienced an author, the more apt he is to give high-sounding names to his heroes and heroines. It is further to be noticed that the American poet, and especially the frontier poet, while not more imitative than his English contemporary, is apt to be a generation behind him as to his school of taste, and still bores us with Poe and Swinburne, while the Englishman only bores us with triolets. On the whole, it must be conceded that, while it is a matter of serious fatigue to spend an evening among second-rate Americans, even in books, the same time given to second-rate Englishmen is often a worse infliction. If we cannot change the *animum*, in such cases, it is a temporary alleviation to have changed the *coelum*.

The high-water mark of second-class London poetry is attained, doubtless, when we have a new volume by Andrew Lang. Yet no one illustrates better the limitations of London life—its hurry, its swift transitions, its shallow use of what might seem great opportunities. Mr. Lang, tested at almost any page of his 'Grass of Parnassus' (Longmans), holds his lineage from the delicate whipped syllabub of Leigh Hunt rather than from the traditions of any stronger poet. His writings offer to us the highly wrought surface of a rather trivial intellectual experience; they sound no depths, and suggest those libraries which are chiefly interesting because they hold masterpieces of binding. It seems an odd meeting of extremes when we find a poet so dainty praising the cheap extravagances of Rider Haggard; but both are equally the fruit of a somewhat monotonous period, and of a metropolitan life that is limited by its very excess of opportunities—by the way in which one hurries from one London exhibition and dinner-party to another, bringing away nothing but a few anecdotes. Mr. Lang was born to translate old French verses, though he draws from the whole of them less of wealth than Keats put into his single unfinished sonnet from Ronsard; and he was born to translate Meleager, but not Homer's 'Odyssey,' which he should leave to Professor Palmer. After all, it is when he is furthest from London and Oxford that he is at his best, as in his graceful "Scythe Song":

SCYTHE SONG.

Mowers, weary and brown and blithe,
What is the word methinks ye know,
Endless over-word that the Scythe
Sings to the blades of the grass below?
Scythes that swing in the grass and clover,
Something, still, they say as they pass;
What is the word that, over and over,
Sings the Scythe to the flowers and grass?

Hush, ah, hush! the Scythes are saying,
Hush, and heed not, and fall asleep;
Hush, they say to the grasses swaying,
Hush, they sing to the clover deep!
Hush—'tis the lullaby Time is singing—
Hush, and heed not, for all things pass,
Hush, ah, hush! and the Scythes are swinging
Over the clover, over the grass! (P. 55.)

Mr. Lang is almost always careful about his literary execution—unlike his friend Mr. Haggard—although he rhymes "again" with "rain" and "vain." For this he has Lord Tennyson's example; but when the Hon. Roden Noel, in 'A Modern Faust, and Other Poems' (Scribner & Welford), rhymes "color" and "corolla," it is certainly a strain upon the ear. Mr. Noel does not, however, float willingly upon the surfaces of life; he grasps the myth of Faust, but does it feebly, and no Helen of his, any more than of Mr. Lang's, would ever fire the topmost towers of Ilium. Neither the verse nor the prose of this conglomerate romance affects the reader with a sense either of power or of clear vision; but there is real sympathy with human suffering and a generous optimism. Here, too, as with Mr. Lang, the author is at best in the country; and "The Merry-go-round at Fowey" (p. 224) is really a charming glimpse of the better side of that English rural life which is beginning to assume for us such grim aspects.

Mr. Alfred Austin, in 'Love's Widowhood, and Other Poems' (Macmillan), rises a little above the smooth commonplace of his earlier volumes, and in the poem called "Two Visions" (p. 109) touches with some strength, though with many halting lines, the great social problems. Mr. Arthur Symons, whose name is less known to us than those preceding, writes a volume which should make him better known, under the rather vague title 'Days and Nights' (Macmillan). He dedicates it to Walter Pater, which is something—for we judge of an author partly by his sponsor—and although he too must have his share of Helena and Faustus, and of French translations, he puts really solid and imaginative poetic work into his pictures of life. The poems "Esther Bray," "Red Bradbury's End," "An Interruption in Court," and, above all, "The Knife-Thrower," have the strength of Tennyson's, or even of Browning's, rustic tragedies; and for a piece of condensed and terrible vividness, take this:

THE OPIUM-SMOKER.

I am engulfed, and drown deliciously.
Soft music like a perfume, and sweet light
Golden with audible odors exquisite,
Swathe me with cerements for eternity.
Time is no more. I pause and yet I flee.
A million ages wrap me round with night.
I drain a million ages of delight.
I hold the future in my memory.

Also I have this garret which I rent.
This bed of straw, and this that was a chair,
This worn-out body like a tattered tent.
This crust, of which the rats have eaten part,
This pipe of opium; rage, remorse, despair;
This soul at pawn and this delirious heart.
(P. 18.)

Other late English and Irish poems need not detain us so long. Jeanie Morison, whose long poem 'The Purpose of the Ages' was reviewed in these columns, now writes a shorter one, 'Gordon, an Our-Day Idyll' (London: Kegan Paul). Many English poets have tried their hands on General Gordon, whose pathetic death made him more a hero—that, and the political use to which it has been turned—than his continued life might have done. To us in America, accustomed to the quiet and reticent heroes of our own civil war, there was something a little turgid and melodramatic about Gordon; and it is not fair, perhaps, to complain if this book has something of those qualities. Another Englishwoman, Caroline Fitz Gerald, sings a song of Venice in 'Venetia Victrix' (Macmillan), and with more sustained and even vigor; she dedicates her book "To my friend Robert Browning." Two poets handle the thoroughly poetic traditions of the Irish Bardic period, Mr. W. B. Yeats, in 'The Wanderings of Oisin' (Kegan Paul), and Dr. John Todhunter, in 'The Banshee, and Other Poems' (Kegan Paul); the chief part of this last volume being, however, given to the beautiful legend of "The Doom of the Children of Lir"—the children changed to swans—a legend already so admirably rendered by Aubrey de Vere that every other versifier is at a disadvantage. The same disadvantage extends, though less directly, to Mr. Yeats's 'Oisin,' but some of the shorter poems have remarkable dramatic power. There is plenty of vigor, also, if carrying a little sense of impetuous exuberance, in Mr. Wilfrid Scawen Blunt's 'In Vinculis' (Scribner & Welford). The sonnets written in jail have also a defiant quality which the author's prefixed portrait does not belie. The following was actually written in Galway or Kilmainham jail, upon the fly-leaf of the author's prayer-book:

SONNET.

A prison is a convent without God—
Poverty, Chastity, Obedience
Its precepts are. In this austere abode
None gather wealth of pleasure or of pence.
Woman's light wit, the heart's concupiscence
Are banished here. At the least warder's nod
Thy neck shall bend in mute subservience,
Nor yet for virtue—rather for the rod.

Here a base turnkey novice-master is,
Teaching humility. The matin bell
Calls thee to toil, but little comforteth.
None heed thy prayers or give the kiss of peace.
Nathless, my soul, be vallant. Even in hell
Wisdom shall preach to thee of life and death.
(P. 5.)

Another of those who are born to translate French poetry is Mr. W. J. Linton, who must now be ranked as an Englishman again, we suppose, and whose thick volume of 'Poems and Translations' (London: Nimmo) is beautifully printed, and is prefaced by an admirable likeness of the author. Yet he fails in his Béranger—almost as untranslatable among the moderns as Horace among the ancients—and is best with the older French verse. His own English poems have a fair amount of ease and smoothness, but add little to our stock of thought. Dr. Thomas Campion's 'Works' appear under the editorship of Mr. A. H. Bullen (London: Chiswick Press), who had previously celebrated this author in his 'Lyrics from Elizabethan Song-Books,' long since eulogized in these columns. Mr. Bullen does well to give us the

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whole works of this poet, undoubtedly the best of his Elizabethan "finds," but, after all, he gave us the cream of Campion before. One attractive feature of the present volume is the full text and stage business of many of those curiously elaborate masques of which the Elizabethan era was so prolific. Mr. Frank T. Marzials, in his 'Death's Disguises, and Other Sonnets' (London: Walter Scott), represents what may be called the Grosvenor Gallery school of younger English poets, whose ink is constantly intermingled with painters' pigments. His "sonnet-songs" are a pretty experiment, not quite successful. In any collection of William Allingham's verse, 'Flower-Pieces, and Other Poems' (London: Reeves & Turner), one inevitably turns first to the striking poem of "The Touchstone" (p. 127), which Emerson applied to Capt. John Brown, and which appears here with one closing verse not included by Emerson, and scarcely strengthening it:

"North, south, in rings and amulets
Throughout the crowded world 'tis borne;
Which, as a fashion long outworn,
Its ancient mind forgets."

The volume gains added value from including two designs by Rossetti, to whom it is dedicated. 'A Reading of Earth,' by George Meredith (Macmillan), has that author's accustomed rude strength, but contains no single poem to be compared with "The Nuptials of Attila." Mr. William Sharp, well known as an editor of sonnet literature, publishes a second edition of his striking 'Romantic Ballads' (Walter Scott), with a valuable preface, in which he predicts a reaction in favor of romanticism as opposed to the realistic school. 'Leaves of Life,' by E. Nesbit (Longmans), draws its title from the well-known line in Omar Khayyám; the author is evidently a woman, and writes with strength and much feeling. The 'Poems' of the late Dora Greenwell, dear to many hearts through her "Patience of Hope," are reprinted in the "Canterbury Poets" series (Walter Scott), and have a uniformly elevated and serene, sometimes mystical quality; her biographer, Mr. Dorling, indeed, calls her "The Last of the Mystics" (p. xv). In 'Chess, a Christmas Masque,' by Louis Tylor (London: Unwin), we have an elaborate and somewhat perplexing allegory of white pawns and black, white and black bishops—something between a newly-discovered poem by George Herbert and a hitherto unpublished chapter of 'Alice through the Looking-Glass'; but the moral significance is good, and so sometimes is the poetry.

It is unnecessary to go back and reassign the precise poetic character of Lewis Morris's 'Epic of Hades,' which has now reached its twenty-fifth edition (Boston: Roberts), and still less that of Wordsworth, a thin volume of whose poems thus tardily appears, the first book of the first part of his 'Recluse' being now for the first time published *in extenso* (Macmillan). It gives a curiously mingled sensation—as if Mr. Edward Bellamy's hero, instead of stepping forward, had stepped backward, to be reading Wordsworth's early blank verse as if it were a newly published book. On the whole, it stands the test. There is something curiously archaic here and there in its language: an Alpine valley is "some Helvetian Dell" (p. 32), a gun is "the deadly tube" (p. 18); these, and the use, in quite the American sense, of "I guess" (p. 17), carry us back to the transitional literary period from which Wordsworth emerged. On the other hand, the beautiful tribute to his sister takes us back to that morning of their existence when their lives were one:

"Mine eyes did ne'er
Fix on a lovely object, nor my mind
Take pleasure in the midst of happy thoughts,
But either She whom now I have, who now
Divides with me this loved abode, was there
Or not far off. Where'er my footsteps turned,
Her voice was like a hidden Bird that sang,
The thought of her was like a flash of light
Or an unseen companionship, a breath
Of fragrance independent of the Wind." (Pp. 6, 7).

SOME GERMAN BOOKS.

Geschichte der Alten Philosophie. Von Dr. W. Windelband. Pp. 222. Nördlingen: C. H. Beck. 1888.

System der Ethik. By Friedrich Paulsen, Professor at the University of Berlin. 8vo, pp. 868. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. 1889.

Grundriss der Romanischen Philologie. Herausgegeben von Gustav Gröber. III. Lieferung. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner. 1888.

Kurzgefasste Albanesische Grammatik, mit Lesestücken und Glossar. Von Gustav Meyer. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 1888.

Die Entstehung der Deutschen Stadtgemeinde. Von Dr. Georg von Below. Düsseldorf: Voss & Cie. 1889. Pp. xi, 126.

UNDER the general title, "Handbuch der Klassischen Alterthums-Wissenschaft in Systematischer Darstellung," a German publisher has undertaken a critical survey of all we now know about ancient Greece and Rome. The work, already more than half complete, will be finished during the present year, and will consist of twenty stout volumes, costing in Germany about thirty dollars. Prof. Müller of Erlangen is the general editor. Under him work thirty-five special scholars, who treat of Greek and Roman philology, hermeneutics, palæography, epigraphy, chronology, grammar, lexicography, rhetoric, metric, geography, history, antiquities, physical science, philosophy, mythology, religion, fine arts, literature, and the drama. Each author's work is complete in itself and in many cases may be had separately. The section on philosophy, by Prof. Windelband, forms the latter half of Part 1, vol. v, and is published in its independent form at four marks. For this work Windelband has postponed the completion of his history of modern philosophy.

A discussion of Greek philosophy so brief and so masterly deserves to be widely known, and ought soon to be translated into English. Until very recently no competent handbook of the subject has existed in English. Zeller's monumental history, three-quarters of which has been published by Longmans, is too large and too much burdened with notes to be readily serviceable either for reading or teaching. Mayor's 'Ancient Philosophy,' remarkable as it is for precision of statement, is slender and ill-proportioned. The distended volumes of Benn's 'Greek Philosophers,' and especially of Archer Butler's 'Lectures on Ancient Philosophy,' explain their author's beliefs better than they do those of ancient times. Ferrier's 'Lectures on Greek Philosophy' has a unique worth as the attempt by a man of distinct philosophical and literary genius to state in modern terms the crucial points of the Greek teaching. But swiftly enlightening as Ferrier's inspired fragments are, they do not pretend to display the detail of Greek speculation. Two years ago Zeller published, both in German and in English, an admirable condensation of his great history; and this little book (Henry Holt & Co.) is likely for some time to be the one from which American college students will most wisely learn. The Germans are better off than we. Apart from their many excellent general histories of philosophy, which supply in the early sections some account of the philosophy of Greece and Rome, writers like Brandis, Strümpell, Prantl, and notably Schwegler, have devoted special treatises to the history of Greek philosophy and have produced brief books of great value.

None of these, however, covers precisely the ground of Windelband. His history is not a guide for beginners. It appeals rather to that large body of classical scholars who already possess a tolerable acquaintance with the current facts of Greek opinion, and who now need instruction in the significance of these facts. What doctrines did Heraclitus, Aristotle, Plotinus, hold? This is the learner's first question, but it should not be his last. One may be able to answer it pretty accurately, and still have little understanding of the philosophies of these men. Understanding means knowledge of relations. The relations which a doctrine bears to the rest of the system in which it is imbedded; the relations which that system as a whole, modified by circumstances in the life and times of its author, bears to the others which make up with it a single evolutional line or school; the relative importance of this school system or single doctrine, as estimated by its influence over subsequent thought and over the beliefs of to-day—it is with these three sets of relations that the higher criticism concerns itself. Of this higher criticism Windelband is a master. Subordinate questions he does not despise: they find their place. The historical evidence which leads us to attribute a certain belief to a certain philosopher, Windelband weighs scrupulously and with a singular lack of partisan spirit. But he never treats beliefs as isolated facts. In his view they are growths—growths of both logic and circumstance.

Short as his book is, in no history of philosophy with which we are acquainted is greater skill shown in tracing the lines along which growths proceed. Each system is treated as a living organism, part influential over part, the whole having its roots in the past and its fruits in the future. That students will often dissent from the proposed interpretations is matter of course. Some will regard Democritus as a teacher of less weight, Pythagoras as one of more, than Windelband believes him to have been. Some will quarrel with the estimates of the sophists or of Epicurus. But all will recognize the patient, unwilful, discerning, and constructive scholar, who can freshly fix attention upon well-worn themes, and who can say much of consequence about them in a little space. Elaborate bibliographies, referring chiefly to German and French sources, show the large learning of the author, and add greatly to the value of the book.

An interesting and symptomatic feature of Prof. Paulsen's 'System of Ethics' is the use of medical terms and analogies in defining the nature of ethics. There are no pretensions of building the science upon a physiological foundation; the completeness of its historical and psychological analysis of ethical problems relieves the work from any such suspicions. But use of physiological conceptions, whether consciously or unconsciously, at the very basis of the subject, has some significance when we are reminded of the fact that Prof. Paulsen, like all later German philosophers, began with physiology and is thoroughly familiar with its principles. The fact is, that ethics is likely to undergo a process of gradual regeneration from the influence of physiological investigations in Germany, and the present work bears some more or less remote indications of the change. The historical chapters are brief and new. Theoretical discussions are cut short, and criticisms show the same excellent taste in omitting questions discussed by others, and in presenting the additional reflections of the author. Another value

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is the direct treatment of actual problems which concern the life of the age, and this is a departure from the high transcendentalism of most German ethics. In this line is a long and interesting chapter on "Socialism and Social Reform," in which it is quite evident that some concessions have to be made to the Government's power to restrict freedom of speech. The chapter on the emancipation of woman betrays the usual German lack of chivalry. No defence of woman's rights is needed, but a country which tolerates hitching a dog and a woman to a cart while the husband walks leisurely behind, and everywhere imposes upon the weaker sex the undignified forms of labor, ought to find in its moralists some readiness to remonstrate against the customs of savages. On the whole, the book is fresh and suggestive, and while there is high scholarship in its style and matter, ethical problems are brought within the comprehension of almost every one.

The number before us closes the first volume of Gröber's 'Grundriss'—a handsome and exceedingly solid volume of nearly 900 large and closely printed octavo pages. This is by far the most important work which has yet appeared in the field of Romance philology, and contains, as far as it goes, pretty well the latest data of the science. The names of the distinguished "Romanisten" (there are twenty-nine of them) associated with the editor are a guarantee for the value and reliability of the work. The contributors, with the exception of two or three scholars of Southern Europe (Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese), are all Germans. It is a pity that some of the leading French scholars in this field, *e. g.*, Gaston Paris, Paul Meyer, Arsène Darmesteter, are not represented.

The present *Lieferung* continues the detailed treatment of the individual Romance languages, commencing with the Italian, which, at the hands of Francesco d'Ovidio and W. Meyer, receives in its phonetics the most exact and scientific treatment it has ever had. Its morphology and dialects are also well handled. The largest section of the present part is devoted to "die französische und provenzalische Sprache und ihre Mundarten," by H. Suchier. The treatment is analytic and rigidly scientific. The geographical speech divisions are first considered, then the phonetic system of the *Schriftsprache*, in two divisions, first up to the twelfth century, and then from the thirteenth century down; and next the phonetics of the dialects. The work is, of course, masterly in its grasp of details, and invaluable to the specialist for reference. A few more generalizations and simpler statements of uninterrupted lines of development from the beginning to the present time would, however, have been very valuable. The remaining phases, the morphology, syntax, composition, etymology, sematology, analogy, etc., are all dealt with concisely and suggestively, and quite as extensively as the breadth of the subject would justify us in expecting. The bibliography at the end of the various divisions, if not exhaustive, always indicates the most important works, and that is all the circumstances permit.

The Catalan is treated by the scholar specially identified with that language, A. Morel Fatio, and the Spanish by Gottfried Baist; the latter in singularly curt fashion, in 26 pages, of which 16 are devoted to phonetics and 6 to morphology. It is rather remarkable that, as against the 46 pages devoted to Catalan and Spanish combined, we have no less than 89 devoted to Portuguese alone, of which 73 are occupied exclusively with phonetics. This discrepancy, in spite of the interesting character of the Portuguese phonetic system, is unaccountable. A treatment of the Latin element in Albanian by Gustav Meyer, of broad philological value, follows. A very complete index with a series of colored language and dialect maps close the volume. The remaining three *Lieferungen* which will form the second volume will deal with Romance metres, style, the various literatures, the histories of the different Romance peoples, as also the history of their culture and art.

Since the conclusion was established that the Albanian language represents a separate and distinct branch of the Indo-European family, the study of Albanian has acquired new interest and importance. That this conclusion, though broached as a theory many years ago, should have been so slow in getting itself generally accepted and incorporated into the text-books, is doubtless due mainly to the circumstance that Indo-European philologists in general really knew little or nothing about the language in question, and had, short of actual residence in Albania (a thing which is not every man's affair), no satisfactory means of informing themselves with regard to it. There have long been in print, to be sure, Albanian grammars of more or less merit, and scattered information with regard to particular dialects has been obtainable here and there; but there was no scientific account of the language by a thoroughly competent modern philologist, nor was it easy to get hold of texts transcribed and edited according to the best lights of contemporary phonetic science. This lack is now temporarily supplied by the little volume before us, which appears in advance of the more elaborate treatise upon Albanian which the author, Prof. Gustav Meyer of the University of Graz, is preparing for Breitkopf & Härtel's "Library of Indo-Germanic Grammars," the same collection for which he has already written his excellent grammar of the ancient Greek.

The country known since the times of the early Greek emperors as Albania comprises the ancient Epirus and portions of Illyria, Macedonia, and Chaonia. It is nominally a Turkish province, and has a population estimated at 1,200,000. This population has a large admixture of Greeks and of Turks, but the bulk of it consists of the true Albanians, or Arnauts, in whom we must now recognize the descendants of an ancient Indo-European stock that failed to produce any Vedas, Avestas, Iliads, or Eddas, or otherwise to make for itself a memorable place in history. Their language interests us somewhat as that of the Greeks might if all we knew of it were derived from a few living dialects, without a history and without literary records.

Meyer's grammar is the result of investigations conducted on the spot by the author, who has, partly at the instance of the Austrian Government, made several journeys to Albania. He writes the language in an alphabet of forty-five symbols, four of them being diagraphs, which he has devised by taking ordinary italic letters as a basis, and supplementing these with a few Greek characters and numerous diacritical marks. The chapter of phonology is very brief, the fuller treatment of that subject being expressly reserved for the forthcoming larger work. Taking the nearest practicable substitute for Meyer's alphabet, we note a few points of interest in Albanian grammar. In the Albanian noun, the old Indo-European stock of eight or more case-endings appears reduced to two, of which one gives a nominative, vocative, accusative, and locative, the other a genitive, dative, and ablative. We find here the postpositive article which constitutes so notable a feature of the Scandinavian languages, and also a few cases of Germanic umlauted plurals, *e. g.*, *plak*, 'old man,' *plech*, 'old men'; *ka*, 'ox,' *ke*, 'oxen'; *nate*, 'night,' *nete*, 'nights'; *gur*, 'stone,' *gur-i*, 'the stone'; *korp*, 'raven,' *korb-i*, 'the raven.' An adjective is always preceded by the article, and this article also serves as a connecting link between a substantive and a following limiting genitive, *e. g.*, *gur-i i malit*, literally, 'stone-the the of the mountain.' Comparison of the adjective is effected by means of the word *me* (derived from, or cognate to, the Latin *magis*), *e. g.*, *Gergi este me i-bukure se Pietri*, literally, 'George is more the-handsome, then Peter.' The first five numerals run *ne*, *dü*, *tre*, *katre*, *pese*. Noteworthy is the fact that the first person singular, present, of the verb 'be' is *jam*, a form which shows a closer parallelism to our English 'am' than any other modern derivative of the ancient proethnic *asmi-esmi*. Still more noteworthy is the fact that this *jam*, in more or less abbreviated form, is used as a suffix to form the passive voice; *e. g.*, *lith*, 'I bind,' *lithem*, 'I am bound (bound-am).'

The texts given by Meyer have, for the most part, never been printed before. They illustrate all the more important dialects of the language, namely, that of the metropolis, Scutari, that of southern Albania (Corytsa and Corfu), and those of the Albanian communities living in Greece, in Sicily, and in Calabria. We find, first, three popular tales in the dialect of Corytsa; secondly, three different versions of the story of the prodigal son, two of them orthographically adapted from translations made some years ago under the auspices of the English Bible Society, the other from a translation made at the instance of Prince Bonaparte; thirdly, six different versions of Matthew (viii, 5-13) obtained from various sources, and finally, about a score of wedding songs. At the end of the book is a well-made glossary to the texts. This glossary does not pretend to go deeply into matters of historical etymology; it contains, however, occasional brief comparisons which serve to light the way in an interesting manner for the philologist. A survey of the glossary shows, as one might expect, a great many Albanian words that are borrowed from the modern Greek. Somewhat less in accordance with one's natural expectations is the fact that we find an equally great, or perhaps even greater, contingent of words that, in Meyer's opinion at least, are borrowed from the Latin.

Dr. von Below's book forms the continuation of two papers which appeared in vols. 58 and 59 of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift*. The first of them aims to show that the citizens of German mediæval municipalities were from the outset preëminently freemen, and not villeins. The second paper lays down the proposition that the separate, independent judiciary of the cities was not derived from that of manors, but was originally a part of the public or national judicature. The volume before us treats of the origin of the municipal community, especially its government. According to Dr. von Below, the administrative machinery of the cities—apart from the judiciary—was derived from the ancient rural community (*Landgemeinde*). He rejects the prevailing views of Nitzsch, Arnold, and Heusler regarding the origin of the civic government (the *Stadt-Rath*, etc.) from manorial jurisdictions, gilds, *scabini*, etc.; and contends that the civic polity was evolved from the mere village by a simple process of growth. The author points out that, while this view has already been advanced by Hegel, Von Maurer, and Planck, it has never been adequately emphasized.

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Roughly speaking, Dr. von Below's conclusions will, we believe, apply to the development of English mediæval boroughs. Their municipal constitution is not to be ascribed to survivals of Roman domination, or to gilds, or to any other single influence, but was simply an expansion of the old Teutonic township. This is too prosaic and simple a view of municipal growth to satisfy most of the brilliant investigators of to-day. There is a strong tendency among historians, especially in Germany, to seek the germ of an institution in some distant age, in some distant country, or in some single extraneous influence; they do not make sufficient allowance for spontaneous, indigenous growth due to a mass of influences or to general environment. When one finds that, after all, the critical acumen of Nitzsch, Heusler, and Arnold has been productive mainly of error, that they soared to the skies for what lay within easy grasp on the earth, one has less faith in our much-vaunted canons of historical criticism.

Our English. By Adams Sherman Hill. Harper & Bros. 1889.

THE five papers which make up Mr. Hill's entertaining and instructive volume have already been published in magazines, substantially in their present form. They deal with English in Schools, English in Colleges, English in Newspapers and Novels, English in the Pulpit, and Colloquial English. They make up a book for teachers and parents, and one which they can hardly read without profit. Mr. Hill's practical recommendations seem to be generally good. They are conservative and at the same time they are enlightened. For instance, he is fully alive to the objections to the study of formal grammar, and even goes so far as to say that "several hours judiciously used should suffice to teach an intelligent boy the few points of grammar which it is most necessary to know." At the same time he strongly insists on the necessity of correctness and the complete eradication of vulgar errors at a very early stage. He is no advocate of slovenly teaching, and points out that there is great danger that petty errors, unless corrected at the beginning, never will be. Grammatical accuracy should, he thinks, be taught by example rather than by precept—that is, the teacher should be constantly on the watch for errors as for weeds in a garden. He urges that classical schools should make translation a study in good English, and it is gratifying to learn that in certain quarters the old word-for-word translation of Latin (he gives two delightful examples—"Tarquin having been expelled, two consuls began to be created instead of one king," and "No one will be about to be a thief, we being the aid") is rapidly becoming a thing of the past.

On the whole, Mr. Hill would have good English treated from the very beginning of school life, "not as a thing by itself, but as part and parcel of every study in which the mother tongue is used, whether orally or in writing."

"This," he continues, "which may be called the indirect method of teaching the rudiments of English, has one decided advantage over the direct method, in addition to those already mentioned. The English of an examination-book or of a translation appears to the pupil to be, as it really is, a means to an end, like the English he talks on the playground or at an evening party. The English of a boy's formal essay, on the contrary, may be and often is merely words that serve no purpose, and seem to him to serve none, except that of filling the prescribed number of pages."

Of course, we come sooner or later to compositions; but the point to be borne in mind is, that when this stage is reached, the pupil should have already acquired the art of *writing English*. One other point here we must not overlook, and that is the practice of abstract or *précis* writing. Mr. Hill thinks it (as it indeed is) an excellent exercise for a boy to reproduce an abstract of something that he has already written himself. But why not also abstracts of things written by other people? There is no better help to thought and expression, and, we may add as the result of much bitter experience, no rarer accomplishment than the art of abstracting correctly and tersely.

As to composition writing, Mr. Hill gives much sound advice, for which we have no space here, but the gist of which is the principle that the subject should be some concrete one, with definite lines marked out, which compel thought on the writer's part. The chief difficulty with most school compositions is that the subjects selected are stale and too vague. The Mariner's Compass, Old Age, Friendship—the materials for essays on subjects such as these do not exist in the minds of the young, and hence must be got out of books—exactly what we do not want. Let the pupil be made to write about something which interests him—it may be a description of something he has seen, it may be a discussion of some topic which is drawn from his own daily life.

But we must not expect too much from school teaching of English. Otherwise, the facts which confront us would be too hopelessly depressing.

"Between 1873," Mr. Hill says, "when Harvard College for the first time held an examination in English, and 1884, I read several thousand compositions written in the examination room upon subjects drawn from books which the candidates were required to read before presenting themselves. Of these a hundred perhaps—to make a generous estimate—were creditable to writer or teacher or both. In 1884 Mr. (now Prof.) Briggs, who then took charge of the examination, wrote me as follows: 'Few [of the books] were remarkably good, and few extraordinarily bad; a tedious mediocrity was everywhere.'

"If the dreary compositions written by the great majority of candidates for admission to college were correct in spelling, intelligent in punctuation, and unexceptionable in grammar, there would be some compensation; but this is so far from being the case that the instructors of English in American colleges have to spend much of their time and strength in teaching the A B C of their mother-tongue to young men of twenty—work disagreeable in itself and often barren of result. Every year Harvard sends out men—some of them high scholars—whose manuscripts would disgrace a boy of twelve; and yet the college can hardly be blamed, for she cannot be expected to conduct an infant school for adults."

Much if not most of this rawness in the use of English must come, not merely from defective training in schools, but from defective training at home. When we reflect that at least three-quarters of our time in early childhood is spent at home, with nurses and parents and other children, it seems inevitable that our *habits* of using English should be mainly formed at home. And so they are. Every healthy, natural child picks up the language of those it is most with, and in the last analysis we think it will be found that the slovenly English which is so striking a phenomenon of boys' efforts, is the result of slovenly training, or no training, at home. In other words, the correct use of English is more largely a question of breeding than it is of school teaching. All this does not contravene what Mr. Hill says. It goes to show that, in this case as in so many others, while the teacher may stand *in loco parentis*, he cannot actually be father and mother to the child. In fact, he probably has, without knowing it, to contend in a majority of instances against the influences of the child's home—a losing fight at best. Teach a child the mysteries of *shall* and *will* as much as you please, how can you create a *habit* of correct discrimination between them if his father and mother think one as good as the other, or do not care to take the trouble (probably the latter case is as common as the former) to correct such faults?

History of the Mongols from the 9th to the 19th Century. Part III. The Mongols of Persia. By Henry H. Howorth, M. P. Longmans, Green & Co.

IN a preface to this, the fourth and largest volume of a voluminous work, the author speaks rather sadly of the lapse of five years since the last issue, and of the failing health which has interfered with his labors. We should say that this instalment of nearly 800 pages of fine print would do no discredit to robust health, and, as it comes down not quite to the year 1400, Mr. Howorth will need long life and full powers to leave the world a complete record of his chosen people to the present time.

In one sense the present volume is less interesting than the earlier ones. There was a dramatic interest in the rise of an obscure tribe in the north of Asia, under a barbarian of genius, to the rule of almost the entire continent, which is materially diminished when the subject is a series of internecine struggles for supremacy over a limited area. Khulagu Khan and Ghazan Khan were no doubt men of great ability, and there is a certain attraction in following the phases of Eastern despotism; but it is of a different kind. Contact with the Crusaders and the Sultans of Egypt, with their Mamelukes, and the recurrence of familiar names in Syria and Asia Minor, give a sense of reality to the narrative, and there are touches which vividly recall the 'Arabian Nights.' It is related of Khulagu that some people went one day to ask justice against a manufacturer of files who had killed one of their relatives, and who they demanded should be given up to them for punishment. Having inquired if there were many manufacturers of files in the country, and finding there were only a few, he ordered the aggrieved to avenge their relative's blood upon a manufacturer of pack-saddles, for they were numerous. As they insisted this would not do, he made over a cow to them in satisfaction. Under his successor, Abaka, the officials, who had before oppressed the people, were so carefully checked that the market-folk used at night to leave the booths strewn with goods and food, and no one took the smallest thing. As a proof of this it is said that on one occasion, as the watchmen were going their rounds, one of them entered the booth of a sugar-baker or confectioner, took a sweet cake, and left two dirhems (which was double the price) in the corner of the booth. On the following morning, when the owner of the booth found a dirhem more than his due, he dared not conceal it, could not rest, showed the silver piece to the treasurer, and gave information of what had happened. It was immediately ordered that the watchman who had transgressed the rigid law should be hung to a hook like meat at the butcher's.

It is difficult to believe that so desolate a country as western Asia could once have been rich, populous, and flourishing; but the change is explained by some generations of warfare like that between the Ilkhans of Persia and the Egyptian Sultan. Thus, one of the latter,

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Bibars, dreading a fresh invasion, caused all the women and children to be removed from Northern Syria, while the country was laid waste from Aleppo as far as Mesopotamia and Asia Minor, and the bushes and trees were burned so that the Mongols should find no food for themselves or shelter for their cattle. Famine was the not unnatural result.

On page 290 is a curious specimen of official correspondence between the two potentates. Like other times and countries, Persia under the Mongols had its experience of paper money. Only, instead of making it a legal tender, as with us, or ordering, as in Great Britain, that whoever declined paper money could not recover anything else, a more drastic method was adopted under Gaikhatu Khan, in 1294, by prohibiting the use of metal currency throughout the kingdom, and an edict that whoever bought and sold for other money than "chao," and whoever did not take his coin to the mint to be exchanged for paper money, was to be punished with death. This did not, however, prevent prices in paper from rising to 100 for one. Ghazan Khan, whom Mr. Howorth thinks the greatest of the Ilkhans, seems to have been inclined to gloomy views. One day after the death of his wife, he asked his amirs what was the most grievous thing in life. It might be supposed that the tact of an Eastern courtier would have suggested the particular bereavement from which the monarch was suffering. Perhaps they thought that that might have excited a suspicion of sincerity. At any rate some said a defeat, others imprisonment, others poverty, sickness, or death. Ghazan replied: "The most grievous is to be born at all, for life is but a string of misfortunes, closed by death."

We have selected these items as showing that the charm of the present volume, at least for the general reader, consists mainly in picturesqueness of detail.

L'Irlande et l'Angleterre depuis l'acte d'union jusqu'à nos jours. 1800-1888. Par Francis de Pressensé. Paris: E. Plon.

"IRELAND, though a little country, is one in which the greatest problems of politics, morals, and humanity exist. Human problems can be best studied among the unhappy, and moral problems among those whose misfortunes arise from injustice. Where will you find a country more unfortunate than Ireland, or a nation whose misery is less deserved?" This was Gustave de Beaumont's explanation, fifty years ago, of the interest Ireland had for political philosophers. Community of religion, supposed identity of race, sympathy with a weak country oppressed by a rival, for a Catholic country under Protestant supremacy, have all combined to make Ireland a special subject of observation and interest to Frenchmen, with the result that a large number of French books on Ireland have been and continue to be published. Pressensé's work will rank with that of Beaumont among the serious and valuable contributions to Irish history.

The author is foreign editor of the *Temps*, and son of a well-known Protestant clergyman who, as a member of the Senate, has played an important part in French politics during the last ten years. The parentage and associations of F. de Pressensé give interest and lend weight to the conclusions he has arrived at after a very laborious and careful study of a vast amount of material: the mere enumeration of the works consulted and read—comprising Hansard's Debates, histories, biographies, pamphlets, and reviews written both by friends and foes of the Nationalists—covers five pages. The result is an eminently readable book, which, though it tells a story well known to readers of Irish history, tells it well. Many otherwise well-informed Irishmen have not read the history of their country, and for them Pressensé's work is as good a book to study as any other treating of this period. He has not only summarized the information contained in the most recent works published, analyzing and discussing the opinions of their authors, but he has verified their statements by consulting the original publications on which they were founded, as well as numbers of books and pamphlets which are entirely out of the ordinary reader's reach. The book is not a mere sketch, but is a serious and labored study of permanent value. "I began," says Pressensé, "with a prejudice in favor of English supremacy and against Irish autonomy; I finish my work completely converted to Home Rule as defined by Gladstone and accepted by Parnell."

The book is divided into five parts, each of which forms an essay, which might be separately read, devoted to a distinct period. The first treats of the passage of the Union; the second of Catholic Emancipation; the third of the Repeal Agitation under O'Connell; the fourth of the famine and the period succeeding it, when Ireland lay "like a corpse on the dissecting table"; the fifth commences with the formation of the Home Rule League under Butt, follows the career of Parnell, and ends with the present régime of coercion pure and simple under Balfour. The cause is won, says the author, at the tribunal of history, and is about to be won at the tribunal of British democracy.

The relations between Ireland and England at the end of the last century were eminently unsatisfactory. Ireland, while subject to the Crown of England, claimed and had technically the right to refuse supplies, to declare war, to make treaties, to regulate her own customs tariff, and even to appoint a regent. It was absolutely necessary to readjust these relations. Pressensé rejects with merited sarcasm the paradoxical theory of Ingram that the Union of 1800 was not effected by bribery. The means were not only bribery, but terrorism and force. The actual outlay amounted to several millions sterling, which were afterwards charged to the Irish Exchequer. It is hardly possible to realize the intimidation and violence employed, whether designedly provoked or not. The outbreak of 1798 was repressed with ferocious cruelty, and accompanied by almost unparalleled atrocities committed by the regular troops, the Yeomanry, and the Orangemen. The ultimate causes of the insurrection, said Emmet to Lord Clare, were the free quarters, burnings, tortures, and military executions in Kildare, Carlow, and Wicklow. Pressensé quotes in this connection Froude's statement that, though the victims of the Jacobins in France were perhaps more numerous, and though from their rank their fate excited more pity and indignation, yet the Orangemen in Ireland completely surpassed the Jacobins in cruelty. Viceroy Cornwallis wrote to Pitt that "the terror was so great that the chief people in Ireland would readily consent to the Union as a means of escape." When reproached by the Unionist party for his lenity, he replied that he had only attempted to stop the burnings, murders, tortures, universal violence, and brigandage of the troops, whose number amounted at this time to 179,000 men, and who were a terror to every one but their enemies.

The only section of unterrified or uncorrupted public opinion that was genuinely in favor of the Union was a portion of the Catholic hierarchy, who had been led to think the Union would be accompanied by a complete measure of Catholic emancipation. But the history of post-Union legislation demonstrated the radical incapacity of the English Government to keep their most solemn promises, or to fulfil the most elementary duties of a civilized State towards Ireland. The Irish legislature was drowned in the English, while the Irish executive remained separate and the creature of the English executive. The first measures of the United Parliament were coercion acts, accompanied by indemnities granted to those who had committed illegal atrocities in suppressing the rebellion. The granting of Catholic emancipation (which should have accompanied the Union) after a delay of twenty-nine years, during which the bitterest religious animosities were aroused, was, Pressensé points out, bereft of all grace; it was not a concession to reason, nor given as a measure of justice, but because it could no longer be withheld. The restriction of the franchise, and the maintenance of the old administrative régime, practically reëstablished and confirmed landlord and Protestant supremacy. As a healing measure, emancipation was useless. The policy of caresses and kicks continued, while no single grievance complained of was ever thoroughly redressed.

Pressensé's style is lively; he sustains the reader's interest by the introduction of dramatic incidents in detail, and quotations from speeches of both parties, without overloading his book or interfering with the thread of his story. The last part of his interesting book contains such graphic descriptions that one cannot but think the author must have been an eyewitness of the scenes and personally acquainted with many of the actors. The accusations against Parnell and his comrades of connivance with or secret approval of the Phœnix Park murders and other crimes are dismissed with contempt, as unjustified by facts and inconsistent with the openly declared policy and consistent action of the present National party. As in the case of O'Connell's agitation, what aroused the alarm and fed the fury of the anti-Irish faction was the very openness of the National movement. Secret conspiracies contained within themselves the seed of failure; but open and constitutional agitation made progress, influenced public opinion, slowly, indeed, but effectually. Parnell's policy killed, or at any rate paralyzed, Fenianism; revolutionary methods are for the present in abeyance. After reviewing Balfour's policy, Pressensé holds that it is a failure; the hostile spirit continues in full vigor, and it is demonstrated that to maintain the semblance of union by force it is necessary to withhold not only the greater political and constitutional reforms which Ireland demands, but also those minor reforms passed, or about to be passed, for England and Scotland.

Although the book was written before the collapse of the *Times* before the Special Commission, Pressensé expresses the fullest confidence in Parnell's statements, and approbation of his prudence in not accepting the challenges of Balfour and Lord Hartington to forthwith stake his chance on the verdict of a jury. "Every one knows," he says, "that while Parnell's great work has been the conversion of a revolutionary policy into parliamentary and constitutional agitation, he has necessarily come into contact with the débris of Fenianism." The thorough acquaintance Pressensé shows with English parliamentary, administrative, and constitutional details, as well as with the intricacies of party relations and tactics, is very remarkable. Chief Secretary Balfour referred to this book in his speech at a recent banquet in Dublin, saying that five minutes' inspection of it at a bookstall con-

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vinced him of its untrustworthiness. No careful and candid reader could come to this conclusion. The book is characterized by the calm impartiality with which the story is told. It is evidently the result of prolonged and conscientious study, as well as of careful observation. These have led the author to a different conclusion from Mr. Balfour. Such a work is most instructive to those who are closely engaged in the heat and turmoil of the political struggle which it criticises. It enables them to see themselves as others see them. Those most assured of the justice of their cause may receive with gratitude the approval of one who is in a position to take a calmer view of the perturbing events in which they are actors. This book cannot fail to strengthen and gather from a larger area that moral support which is all, or nearly all, that foreign nations can give to Ireland in her persistent struggle not only against unjust and unequal laws, but against misrepresentation and calumny. We commend it most warmly to those who wish to study the history of Ireland since the Union, and to understand the connection between the earlier agitations for reform and repeal and the present Nationalist movement.

Francis Bacon: His Life and Philosophy. By John Nichol, LL.D. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. Part I., 1888. Part II., 1889.

THE first of these two volumes in the series of "Philosophic Classics for English Readers" is almost exclusively occupied with Bacon's political career, scarcely any attention being given to his private life, in which much of his philosophy was formed. It is the psychological history, as it were, in which the student of philosophy is chiefly interested; and while it would be impossible to ignore the great chancellor's public career in a complete estimation of his work as a philosopher, it is a misfortune that attention must so often be diverted from his intellectual history by apologies for his political obliquities. But this is what we always find.

Bacon's mental constitution made him at heart an independent in politics, and he thought to solve the political problems of his time by an application of his family motto, *Mediocria firma*. Had his will been as strong as his judgment, he might have saved his integrity; but he did not see that he could rise without crawling, or that he could attain his ends without financial extravagance. He courted the favor of his king, and coveted the manners and means of an aristocratic life: the one led him into flattery for the sake of promotion, the other into the acceptance of bribes, and both to his fall and ruin—a singular fate for a philosopher. The only apology of any force at all is, that he was not worse than his contemporaries; nevertheless, he appears worse because of his achievements in philosophy. The author well describes the condition of the age in these words:

"Never had men of letters a higher standard of style, men of action broader aims; never were either more emulously keen in the pursuit and discovery of truth; but of telling the plain truth to each other they took little thought, of telling it to their sovereign none at all. Despising the opinions of the many, they became slaves to the caprice of one. The *ipsa veritas* of nature was the goddess of philosophers, but the *veracitas* of civil business was unknown to the 'politicks' who 'would circumvent the gods,' whose models were not Pericles, nor Regulus, nor Hamlet, but Alcibiades, the Medici, and Iachimo."

Bacon was both the product and the victim of this environment, so that he divides his faults and weaknesses with others. One merit he had: he did not defend his shortcomings. Dr. Nichol dispenses apology and criticism in very just measures. He occupies middle ground between the extremes of advocates and opponents. With taste, learning, and literary power he summarizes in the first chapter the intellectual, social, and moral forces at work in the age of Queen Elizabeth, and in subsequent chapters analyzes in an impartial manner the character of Bacon. The chief fault in this part of the work is its suitability only for those who are familiar with the history of that time. To any one else it must appear a little fragmentary. In other respects it is worthy of British scholarship.

The second volume displays less of interest for the general reader, because its character as an outline of Bacon's philosophy makes fewer calls upon the author's knowledge of the age. It is evident that his tastes are literary and historical, and, were the work designed for advanced philosophic scholars, it would have to be regarded as failing of its purpose. But it is a summary in a lighter vein for readers who have no time for profundities. Bacon somewhere denounces epitomes, and the reader who would like to see Dr. Nichol's powers better employed than in cataloguing the topics of a great man's writings, would be tempted to use Bacon's judgment against the author. We can praise, however, the extent to which this part of the work shows the unconscious growth of the experimental method before Bacon, in the person of men like Roger Bacon, Leonardo da Vinci, Copernicus, Pomponazzi, Paracelsus, Tycho Brahe, Kepler, Galileo, and a host of minor lights, whose practice and principles Bacon systematized and reduced to the dignity of a method. This occupies a little more than one-third of the volume, and it is very valuable as proving that in philosophy as in nature progress is not made by leaps and bounds, and diminishes the philosopher's honors by justifying the dictum of Macaulay that Bacon, directed by the hints of his predecessors, had merely seen the sunrise from the mountain-top a little sooner than those who were lower down in the valleys. The analysis of the 'Novum Organum' is too brief to admit of the exposition and criticism it deserves. Bacon's relation to Aristotle needs other than a literary hand to present it, and so the 'New' and the 'Old Organon' are seen only on the surface. The last chapter, on Bacon's influence and his relation to religion, is the most interesting, perhaps because the author is himself again in a field where general philosophic views can have full play.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' Dictionary of New York and its Vicinity. With maps and illustrations. 1889. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Atwood, Rev. I. M. Revelation. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 25 cents.
Banks, A. B. Albany Bi-Centennial. Historical Memoirs. Albany: Banks & Brothers.
Bert, P. Primer of Scientific Knowledge. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 36 cents.
Burns, C. E. Disillusions of an Oculist. Willard Fracker & Co. 50 cents.
Clendenin, F. M. Idols by the Sea, and Other Sermons. James Pott & Co.
Cooke, Frances E. The Story of Theodore Parker. New ed. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.
Crozier, J. B. Civilization and Progress. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Digby: Chess Professor. Willard Fracker & Co. 50 cents.
Ebers, G. Margery (Gred): A Tale of Old Nuremberg. 2 vols. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.
Emerson, E. W. Emerson in Concord. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Grey, M. The Reproach of Annesley. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Horace: The Odes, Epodes, Satires, and Epistles. Translated by the most eminent English Scholars and Poets. Frederick Warne & Co. 75 cents.
James, H. A London Life; The Patagonia; The Liar; Mrs. Temperly. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
"Jerry," and Other Stories. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Julliot, F. de. Mademoiselle Solange. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Klein, E. The Bacteria in Asiatic Cholera. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Leidy, Prof. J. An Elementary Treatise on Human Anatomy. 2 1 ed., rewritten. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $6.
Logan, Celia. Her Strange Fate. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Lubbock, Sir J. The Pleasures of Life. Part II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Merriam, G. S. The Story of William and Lucy Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Merriman, H. S. The Phantom Future: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Montgomery, D. H. The Leading Facts of French History. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Murray, W. H. H. Deacons. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 75 cents.
Murray, W. H. H. The Story that the Key Told Me, and the Story of the Man who Didn't Know Much. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
O'Connor, T. P. The Parnell Movement. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 25 cents.
Oliver, Dr. N. T. Ameda: A Tale of the Buellos Madros. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Seawell, M. E. The Berkeleys and their Neighbors. American News Co. 25 cents.
Seymour, Prof. T. D. A Concise Vocabulary to the First Six Books of Homer's Iliad. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Shapley, R. E. Solid for Mulhooly: A Political Satire. New edition, with illustrations by Nast. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. 75 cents.
Stevens, Mal. Bessie's Promise. James Pott & Co.

HENRY HOLT & CO.

HAVE READY:

NEW MATERIALS FOR THE

History of the American Revolution.

Translated from the French Archives. By John Durand. 12mo, $1.75.

Smith's Synonyms Discriminated.

A Dictionary of Synonymous Words in the English Language, showing the accurate signification of Words of Similar Meaning. *Illustrated with Quotations from Standard Writers.* By the late Ven. C. J. Smith, M.A. *Revised edition.* 12mo, $2.25.

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